The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 19, 1907.

The Week.

The Northwest's enthusiasm for Roosevelt is the theme of an interview which Senator Clapp of Minnesota has given to the press:

> The people . . . are inclined to accept the President's statements that he is not a candidate, and does not wish the office again, as the sincere desire of the President at the time he made them; but they have great hope that the President may be brought to a point where he will change his views and heed what undoubtedly seems to be the sentiment of the masses of the American people—that he should once more be the candidate.

In this way, entirely aside from the element which would force the nomination upon a reluctant Roosevelt, the man's popularity operates as a discourager of other candidacies. Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Wisconsin all have favorite sons, to be sure, but all or most of them would be abandoned overnight if Roosevelt spoke the word. Evidently, a great deal of the sentiment which gave Mr. Roosevelt his unprecedented popular plurality in 1904 has survived three years of his administration with unabated, if not augmented, strength. An attempt to stampede the next Republican Convention for him would find ready support among Western delegations if the Convention were to be held next week. This is not saying that the feeling toward Roosevelt is absolutely stationary and unmodified. The President's temperamental defects are recognized more than formerly. The "Ananias Club," for instance, is not taken so seriously as it would have been at one time. Yet the loyalty of the West to Roosevelt is, in a sense, all the more impressive because it is tempered more than formerly by a realization of the defects of its object. The fact that must be recognized is that Roosevelt is, in the eye of the West, the champion of the people against the powerful corporations which were exploiting them. Hence the implicit belief in the man's soundness and the urgency of his policies—a belief which has enabled him to pass without sensible diminution of popularity through episodes that would have gravely affected the career of any other politician. As for the rival candidates now showing themselves before the Republican voters, it is hard to see why the earnest Roosevelt man should be expected even to become interested in them. When the best of the open aspirants avows that he is only an excellent copy, is it a wonder that many Republicans should demand the "real thing"?

Signs of growing discontent with the proposed Pacific cruise of the battleships continue to manifest themselves within the ranks of true believers. Representative Weeks, a Republican member from Massachusetts, is the latest to condemn the project, and that from the point of view of one who in principle is not opposed to war and naval expansion. The argument against proceeding with reckless haste in so important a matter is one of the strongest objections yet raised. Says Mr. Weeks:

> The result will be a demand for increased dockage and other facilities on the Pacific, which may be necessary, but which should come after judicious and careful selection of sites, rather than as the result of this particular movement.

In other words, mere administrative efficiency requires that, if dockyards and naval bases are to be constructed on our Western Coast, the work should be carried out in accordance with some deliberate scheme, and not in all haste, as the result of a single unnecessary cruise to the Pacific. So the work of building a certain great canal was entered on with a jump, and found to entail something more in the way of preparation than unlimited optimism.

The census of Oklahoma, now finished, shows that from a total population of 790,391 in 1890, Oklahoma and Indian Territory have grown to a population of 1,408,732. The obvious comment on these figures is that Oklahoma, when suffered to enter at all, will enter the Union with a larger population than any other State had at the time of admission. It is a more remarkable distinction, however, that the population determined by actual count is larger by several thousands than was estimated for this year's "World Almanac" by the Territorial Governor. Whereas the enabling act provided for five Congressional districts in the new Territory, there is more than population enough for seven. On a basis of the populations estimated by Governors for the current year, Oklahoma is in twenty-fifth place, below Maryland and above South Carolina. Only twenty-two States in 1900 had larger populations than Oklahoma has now. The people of both Oklahoma and Indian Territory rank high in point of literacy, and the proportion of native-born is larger than in almost any other section. We give emphasis to these facts because it is in the face of them that the effort is being made to defer Statehood for another year or two.

People are not so excited as they were two months ago over the conflict of Federal and State authorities, yet the question of "States' rights" continues to present itself in new forms. On Monday the Missouri Secretary of State was enjoined by a Federal judge from revoking the license of the Santa Fé Railroad to do business within the State. At the same time, Gov. Johnson of Minnesota, in an interview in the *Wall Street Journal*, calls attention to the interesting legal situation of freight rate legislation in his State. The fight in Minnesota has been carried on without such fulminations as made the North Carolina cases conspicuous, but at bottom the conditions appear to be decidedly similar. Gov. Johnson charges that the railroads chose to test the new law by injunction proceedings, instead of by a mere refusal to comply with it, "because they believed the State courts would lean toward the State's side of the case." The railroads evidently prefer to have their cases brought to the United States Supreme Court from inferior Federal courts rather than to the highest State courts. Thus few of the leading cases growing out of the 2-cent fare and other recent State activities will have passed through the State Appellate Courts at all. Whether the Supreme Court is really more likely to favor the railroads under this procedure, is a question no one can yet answer. There is no doubt, however, that this policy has tended to offend and antagonize still further the various State authorities.

Writing in the *Journal of the Military Service Institution*, Lieut.-Col. R. L. Bullard, Eighth Infantry, makes some gratifying statements about the bearing of the American troops now in Cuba for purposes of pacification. He says:

> In this Cuban intervention, the American soldier has thus far again dignified himself and justified the faith of his friends. A surpassing excellence of conduct toward the Cubans and an unusual worthiness of conduct as a soldier have characterized him everywhere in Cuba.

So far as the officers are concerned, there has been even with the youngest a remarkable absence of mistakes and errors of judgment, or of conflicts with the civilian authorities. Col. Bullard is also properly proud of the rapidity and thoroughness with which the army mapped the island. It had no sooner landed than this work was undertaken, and whoever suggested it deserves high praise. It not only puts this Government in possession of valuable information in the event of future trouble in the island, but performs a great service for the little Republic if the maps are published as they ought to be. More than that, the making of the maps was the valid excuse for sending troops into

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every nook and corner of the island, and letting the inhabitants see just what kind of men the American soldiers are. All the reports which have come to us confirm the complimentary statements made by Col. Bullard, save as to the appearance of the troops. Far from being neat, clean, and soldierly, they are much inferior to the marines in all the outward signs of the well-disciplined soldier.

One of the first arguments put forward by the supporters of Theodore E. Burton for the Cleveland Mayoralty is premised on a former criticism of his Congressional career. The Cleveland *Leader* tells us:

> In Congress, Mr. Burton has been criticised by his party associates for being too fond of sticking for abstract principles, too unwilling to yield a little to expediency. It has been said of him that he is too stiff-backed in standing out against the judgment and wishes of the majority on what is to him a point of conscience. Isn't that the ideal guarantee for justice in the Mayor's office?

It is a natural thing to glory in the taunts of the enemy, but here is a case in which the criticisms had come from men of the candidate's own party, and yet they are held up as points in his favor. Are we, as a practical people, undergoing a change in our attitude toward the theorists in politics? Are we willing to do more than tolerate the man who applies abstract standards to the acts of his public life? The politician of the other type has been with us for generations. We have ferocious fights in national and State conventions over alternative planks or resolutions, neither of which—because they were drafted with the idea of hurting no one's feelings—means anything in particular. The word "practical" as used of a politician implies a willingness to yield and concede systematically. The "main chance" of the bad politician is the "larger good" of his more reputable ally. That political life is necessarily a structure of compromises, becomes an article of faith. We even have a paradoxical breed of politicians who hold their ideal of compromise itself intolerantly and uncompromisingly. Now, nothing has been more clearly demonstrated by recent political history than that this is not the kind of statecraft which will permanently satisfy the people. We have spoken of Congressman Burton. Gov. Hughes is perhaps the leading example just now of the executive of academic ideals. A "practical" Governor who secured by "dickers" half as much from a semi-hostile Legislature as Gov. Hughes did last winter by sheer sticking to principle would be indeed a curiosity. The doctrinaire—a name which gets itself applied to many men who dissent but feebly from purely "practical" policies—has evidently a little more comfortable place in our political world than he had a few years since. It is an encouraging thing that doctrinaires are to-day looked upon as an especially "available" class of candidates.

The view has been expressed that the anti-Asiatic outbreak in British Columbia must tend greatly to facilitate the settlement of our own misunderstanding with Japan by emphasizing the serious nature of the opposition with which the Mikado's Government must reckon. But if it should prove to be true that Asiatic exclusion agitators from Seattle were prominent among the Vancouver rioters, our relations with Japan will become only more difficult. Our citizens would then be in the apparent position, not merely of refusing the Japanese fair treatment within our own jurisdiction, but of deliberately seeking to create bitterness of feeling between Japan and her powerful ally. Nor would Great Britain or the Dominion Government have any particular cause for gratitude towards these uninvited American labor champions. Following the attack on the Sikhs at Bellingham, the irruption of the Seattle agitators into Canadian affairs may easily develop into an unpleasant "incident" between the British Government and our own. But, then, white supremacy, like love and justice, knows no boundaries.

Last Saturday's further cut in the price of copper to 16½ cents a pound, coupled with the intimation that the Amalgamated Copper Company is preparing to shut down some of its mines with a view to checking the fall in the price of the metal, is interesting for many reasons. It was copper which, more than any other commodity on the list, typified the extraordinarily rapid rise in prices during 1906. As lately as 1905, a year of great industrial activity and prosperity, the average price of copper in New York was 15⅞ cents per pound, and since copper had sold at 12⅝ in 1904, the price of 1905 was justly regarded as high. Indeed, the price fixed by the Amalgamated Company in its disastrous effort to corner the market in 1901 was only 17 cents. By a series of advances during 1906 and in the early months of 1907, copper was forced up by the Amalgamated to no less than 26 cents, much above anything reached in the American market since the autumn of 1873. With the disordered conditions which befell the money markets last spring, resistance of consumers to this extravagant price naturally began. But the company made no concessions. It held to its "pegged price" from March to July; ridiculed the lower quotations given out on the floor of the Metal Exchange; declared the heavy decline in London to be a mere device of speculators; shut its eyes to the decrease within five months of 20,000 tons in the export of copper from the United States; and answered all protest and remonstrance by asserting that consumers would be forced to buy at the producer's price. Even the news that the great electrical manufacturing concerns, the chief users of copper, were reducing their working force because of the tight money market seemed to have no effect. On July 5 the president of the Amalgamated Company gave out this statement regarding the price:

> I don't know why it should change; certainly not for lower values. Europe is short of our copper and the world's demand is greater than the world's supply.

We leave it to the average business man to pass judgment on the sagacity of this conduct. When, in the middle of July, the producers began to see the light and offered copper at 22 cents, followed by a cut to 18, they found that their concessions came too late. The consumer had not been asleep while the producer slumbered, and he naturally waited to bring the Amalgamated to his own terms. That such an episode should be followed by the threat of shutting down production, and by the apparently official statement that supply is now vastly beyond demand, and that "there is no use in accumulating copper when it cannot be sold at 18 cents," is a fitting commentary on this whole story of commercial bungling.

Whether or not the Moroccan tribesmen are really prepared to make peace as suddenly as they began hostilities, the state of affairs that prevailed before the attack on Casablanca cannot be restored, and the gains which France has made in the course of the last few weeks she will in all probability keep. It is now planned to make use of the French and Spanish troops at Casablanca as a police for the eight ports, with the protection of which the Algeciras Conference was so greatly concerned. But whereas the Act of Algeciras provides for a native police under European officers, the talk is now of an arrangement that is not far removed from actual foreign occupation. While French troops may be entrusted with the protection of the coast towns only, it needs merely raids like that on Casablanca to extend the field of French activity into the interior; and it is not at all improbable that the pursuit of marauding bands might some day carry the European forces as far as Fez. Before peace can be really regarded as reëstablished, there is still the question of the new aspirant for the throne to be settled. Mulai Hafid's progress does not seem to have been so rapid as was expected at first, but unless his candidacy utterly collapses, there will be turmoil enough in Morocco to make the presence of an European army of observation far from

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superfluous. It will be of interest to see whether the conclusion of peace at Casablanca will be followed by the reshipment of any of Gen. Drude's 8,000 men.

The Papal encyclical which has just appeared deals with "modernism" in the faith. Two aspects of this movement are especially disquieting to the Catholic authorities. In the first place, modernism arrays itself against ecclesiastical authority, criticises the Bible and tradition, and stands for subjective opinion. It is the Roman counterpart of the Protestant new theology. The serious side of such radicalism is that it affects the ideas of the priests, and is dangerous to faith and discipline. To counteract it, the Pope, like his predecessor, Leo XIII., will insist once more upon the importance of teaching philosophy and scholastic theology at the colleges and seminaries. Yet in spite of the prestige of Thomas Aquinas among Protestants as well as Catholics, it must be very plain to every one that his system is not flexible enough to be pitted against the various forms of infidelity which have lately arisen. As a *Summa Theologiæ*, it is imposing; but its apologetical value is of less importance. In the second place, modernism allies itself with Christian Socialism, which is constantly gaining strength in Italy as well as Austria; and against it the scholastic authors cannot be of much use.

The figures which the St. Petersburg *Slovo* gives for the casualties of the Russian revolutionary movement of the last three years have to be taken with caution, but, even if only approximately true, they illustrate both the nature and intensity of the struggle that is still under way. Counting the victims of riot, open insurrection, assassination, judicial murder, and legal execution, over 47,000 persons have suffered death or wounds since the first dramatic overture on Gapon's Red Sunday, January 22, 1905. Of these, the dead are given as 19,144, of whom nearly 13,000 fell in combat between the populace and the soldiers and police. The number of executions is set at 2,381, but this is supplemented by no less than 1,350 cases of suicide, an almost incredible total, if it were not for the fact that many opponents of the Government are women and youths who may prefer suicide to waiting for execution. Nevertheless, when we compare the total number of victims on the revolutionary side, 3,731, with the number of Government officials of all kinds reported to have fallen by assassination, 8,223, we find that the autocracy has had ample reason for complaining that its servants were being slaughtered with far greater vindictiveness than the Government displayed towards the revolutionaries. Yet in the face of such great losses on both sides, the lesson that still strikingly stands out is that the policy of revolutionary terrorism has been a failure. The revolutionaries have killed nearly three servants of the Government for every one who has fallen in their own ranks; but 3,700 is a large percentage of the entire revolutionary force, while 8,000 police constables and soldiers are but a drop in the vast resources of a Government drawing on a population of 140,000,000. To speak in terms of cold-blooded commercialism, 1,000 lives sunk in an open insurrection as at Sveaborg or Sevastopol or Moscow are a good investment, because such public events shatter the confidence of the autocracy and gain the sympathy of the world. But the same number of lives expended in removing twice as many Government officials is only wild-cat speculation.

President Fallières, in commuting the death sentence imposed on the perpetrator of a peculiarly atrocious murder, has, it is generally admitted, virtually abolished capital punishment in France. There have been street demonstrations in Paris, and certain newspapers have criticised the Government, but inasmuch as these newspapers would with equal readiness seize upon an earthquake or a tidal wave as an indication of the Government's criminal incapacity, their opposition can be largely discounted. The sense of the country has for some years been decidedly in favor of the abolition of the death sentence. Indirectly, this object was attained some time ago, through the suppression in the budget of the item providing for the maintenance of the guillotine and its presiding genius. At the present moment the Chamber has before it a bill dealing explicitly with the subject. That such action should be contemplated at a time when Paris is said to be suffering from an unprecedented outburst of crimes of violence, and that President Fallières should have exercised clemency under aggravated circumstances, is quite in consonance with the doctrinaire strain in the French blood. If capital punishment is wrong, what matters it how bestial an assassin we have to deal with? On the contrary, if public clamor and the passion of the moment can be overcome in this particularly irritating case, how much more easily will the principle be accepted when applied to the ordinary criminal?

Germany is in the midst of an unprecedented period of industrial development. Factory chimneys spring up on all sides like mushrooms, and unemployed labor has ceased to exist. A striking illustration of the movement may be found in Frankfurt on the Main, where a project for expending $14,372,500 on a large harbor is under consideration, and will probably be carried out. Every precaution has been taken for making the undertaking successful. To prevent speculators from charging usurious rates, the community has bought up all the land intended for the harbor works and for the factories that are to be built in the vicinity. Everything is to be on a large scale; the space set aside for the project covers 350 hectares, including water basins, streets, and railway tracks. There will remain about 192 hectares for factories, as compared with the 100 hectares in Mannheim and Kehl, 59 in Strassburg, 46 in Mainz, 41 in Düsseldorf, 26 in Cologne. Frankfurt thus expects to place herself, in no distant future, in the van of all these cities, and become, what it has never been before, a real industrial centre. Whether the change of the old exclusive *Reichsstadt* to a modern noisy factory town will make the inhabitants any happier remains to be seen.

The progress of reform in China is still far from that unmistakably hopeful phase which it is the custom now to insist upon. As for judging from the ups and downs in the fortunes of various Chinese politicians, we might as well give up all hope of attaining any definite knowledge. For every reactionary degraded from office at Peking we find one exalted in the provinces; and every triumph of the liberal-minded Yuan-shih-kai apparently leaves him weaker than before. We have still to depend on the conclusions drawn by Europeans on the spot, and from that source undiluted optimism does not flow. The Shanghai *Mercury* finds in the present condition of China cause for serious anxiety. There are three phases of existing discontent. First comes the purely revolutionary movement, which aims at the overthrow of the Manchu dynasty by violent means, and which, though as yet unsuccessful in its attempts, is growing in influence. Second is the reform movement, which is described as "a struggle between the bureaucracy and Yuan-shih-kai with his henchmen," with the chances on the whole favoring the latter. Finally, there is the purely lawless element of the population ready for any mischief, half-beggars and half-banditti, who, in Manchuria especially, are to be reckoned with. The danger rests in none of these three parties alone, but in a coalition of them; and of such an amalgamation the possibilities continue to increase, since the Government's hesitant attitude in the face of reform is driving the progressives into the arms of the revolutionaries. Some economic happening might hasten the welding process and bring about a repetition of the Taiping rebellion—such as the failure of a harvest with which the Yang-tse valley is threatened.

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SUPREMACY ON THE OCEAN.

The superiority of the new Lusitania over any other ship afloat is manifest in spite of her failure to break all records on her maiden trip. To have done so would have been nothing less than phenomenal, for the best of machinery requires a shaking-down, and the ablest stokers must become acquainted with their boilers in order to get the greatest power out of them. Moreover, many a fine ship has suffered from being driven too fast on her early voyages. But the significant thing is that the ocean has been crossed in just about five days, and that even greater speed is in sight. No one believes that the resources of naval architect and naval engineer are exhausted. Gustav H. Schwab of the North German Lloyd Company is quoted as saying that the reciprocating engine has about reached the limit of development; but the turbine obviously has not, and the gasolene engine is merely at the beginning of its evolution. With the British Admiralty considering plans for a gasolene battleship, the day of the thirty-knot gasolene liner may not be far off.

Be that as it may, the British may well take pride in the Lusitania, even though it represents to many an unhappy alliance between the government and a private mercantile enterprise through the construction subsidy which made this ship and her sister, the Mauretania, possible. That the German shipbuilders, with all their cleverness and adaptability, would permanently take front rank, we were never prepared to believe. German blood is still too conservative, as is clearly illustrated by the German attitude towards the marine turbine. This invention has only just been adopted for certain types of vessel of the Imperial navy; for mercantile purposes it is still under a ban, despite the success of the turbine predecessors of the Lusitania and the appearance of that ship herself. The German naval architects feel that the new engine is still an experiment, and they are appalled by the coal consumption of the new Cunarders. Hence, to the English are left the honor and advantage of developing the turbine. As long as the English are willing to take up new inventions and run their chances, other nations will continue to learn of them and follow in their footsteps.

But, after all, supremacy on the ocean does not depend upon owning the fastest ship afloat. Britannia has continued to rule the waves throughout these ten years, when the Atlantic speed records belonged to the Germans. Nor are the British superior merely because they have the largest navy afloat. It is to the enterprise and shrewdness of her merchants and shipowners and to the liberal shipping laws that her ascendency is due, and it is owing to similar traits that the German shipowners have become within thirty years such mighty factors in the carrying trade of the world. Subsidies have, of course, helped in both countries, but, after all, to a comparatively slight extent. The great fleet of the Hamburg-American Company has, for instance, been created without the aid of a single Government grant of money. The Empire has generally lent only its moral aid and encouragement, and permitted its shipowners to buy their vessels wherever they could get them best and cheapest.

This fact alone ought to make Americans hang their heads. Indeed, the arrival of the Lusitania should be a mortification to all our citizens who wish to see the American flag restored to the place among the world's fleets which it occupied in the fifties, when our clipper ships were in every harbor on the globe. The rivalry for the Atlantic laurels is not between the English and the most enterprising people in the world, the Americans, but between the English and the Germans, who have but a short coast line and four or five harbors. The American trade is fought for by everybody save ourselves. There are no reports of projected American ships to surpass the Lusitania, no rumors that American invention is busy with a plan to develop a vessel that will cross within four days. To France or Germany we must look for the reply to the English challenge. Our chief American line is precisely where it was in 1892, when by act of Congress it was given the special privilege of placing two of its foreign-built ships under the Stars and Stripes, on condition that it build two others in American shipyards. Its ships are now far from modern, and it clings desperately to its mail-subsidies; but as a factor in the development of our European trade, it hardly counts, save to remind us of our humiliating position.

Just what has caused our downfall and what keeps us from entering into competition with Englishmen and Germans has recently been set forth afresh by Franklin Pierce in his book, "The Tariff and the Trusts." There are three reasons: our barbarous navigation laws, the increased cost of shipbuilding materials because of the tariff, and the direct impairment of our commerce with other countries by reason of prohibitive tariffs, which prevent both importation and exportation. So far as our navigation laws are concerned, they have come down to us with but few changes from the eighteenth century. No American can buy a vessel abroad and fly the American flag on it unless he be the millionaire owner of a steam yacht built on the Clyde and used for pleasure only. Then he can get an American registry. If he wished to earn an honest dollar through that craft, he would be compelled to hoist the British flag. The theory is that this law will compel American shipowners to build at home; instead, it means that they will not build at all; or, if they build, they must charge such prices that the Washington Government hires a fleet of British ships to carry its coal to the Pacific or its supplies to Panama. Not even the payment of a duty permits an American to buy a foreign vessel and hoist his own flag on her. Far different is Germany's policy.

So far as the tariff is concerned, Mr. Olcott, the president of the Newport News Shipbuilding Company, testified before the Mercantile Marine Commission in 1904:

> There is a difference of about 40 per cent. [in the cost of shipbuilding], on account of the tariff. . . . It is not only the steel that forms the hollow of the vessel that is affected in price; it is every conceivable item that goes into a ship.

Thus we deliberately make impossible the regaining of the shipping honors of which we were once so proud. The achievement of the latest ocean greyhound is but a fresh reminder that the United States, the richest country in the world, the greatest producer of coal, steel, and iron, with the largest and finest sea-coast of any nation, is throwing away the opportunity of becoming mistress of the seas.

INDIA AND THE PHILIPPINES.

One of the difficulties before the Secretary of State for India is that he has to face the perplexities of rule in isolation, and without that daily help which the politician dealing with home affairs can get from his colleagues, or can absorb, as it were, from the political atmosphere around him. In home matters the general trend of public opinion, or, at any rate, of the opinion of the wiser minds in the nation, is of enormous help to the statesman. . . . No such help is forthcoming for the Secretary of State for India. . . . Here he must for the most part act alone. The minds of his colleagues are turned away from India and things Oriental, and it can very rarely happen that they are willing or able to take the responsibility of giving advice. Even those who have been viceroys or secretaries of state have in all probability lost touch with India. In the same way, little help is to be got from what we have called above the general trend of public opinion. That is a stream which does not flow into the Indian channel.

This passage is from an article in the London *Spectator* of August 31 on Mr. Morley's conduct of Indian affairs. No American can read it without being reminded of our own difficulties with the Philippines. The parallel is obvious; it has often been drawn. But the return of Secretary Taft to those unhappy islands and the renewed discussion of our relations with them lend point to a fresh examination of issues, which, to us at least, can never be trite, for on them

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depends the welfare of millions of mankind.

The disadvantage under which Mr. Morley labors is nothing more than another illustration of perhaps the oldest and hardest problem of personal as well as international ethics. The man who is unjust, oppressive, cruel, to a slave, a servant, or a neighbor, fails, we say, to understand that this slave or neighbor is a creature of like passions and aspirations with himself, is alive and human. This is the burden of Shylock's pathetic cry, "Hath not a Jew eyes? Hath not a Jew hands, organs, dimensions, senses affections, passions? . . . If you prick us, do we not bleed?" And therefore it is that moralists of all ages and races have warned us that our essential error lies in our obtuseness. We do not treat men as if they were real; we regard their desires as dim and cold and pale beside our own. We cannot comprehend that we are all children of one Father.

This example from the life of the individual is not irrelevant, because, as Burke put it, "the principles of true politics are those of morality enlarged; and," he added, "I neither now do, nor ever will, admit of any other." Nor can we in America set up any other standard of judgment. We know that it is the combination of brute selfishness combined with almost invincible ignorance that always has made the phrase foreign rule a synonym for exploitation. We need not cite instances, for every schoolboy can name a hundred. The *Spectator* assures us that England does not understand India, and is not much interested in it. England has never understood India or been interested in it. That was the trouble when Burke tried to bring Warren Hastings to justice. Macaulay in a famous passage explains Burke's vehement advocacy of the cause of this "emptied and emboweled land." To Burke, says Macaulay, "India and its inhabitants were not, as to most Englishmen, mere names and abstractions, but a real country and a real people." This is why Burke felt that "oppression in Bengal was the same thing as oppression in the streets of London."

The century and a quarter that have elapsed since Burke first urged reform in the government of India have not enabled England to develop a group of administrators possessing a statesman's imagination like Burke's. Thousands of Englishmen have lived in India in the military and the civil service; thousands more have visited India for pleasure or commercial profit. The ties between Great Britain and its province have been extremely close, and yet in the whole history of the management of India crime has trodden on the heels of blunder. After all this bitter and costly experience, after the sacrifice of innumerable lives by disease and by battle, it is still true that the minds of the governing class are turned away from India, and public opinion does not flow into the Indian channel.

What, then, can we expect for the Philippines? So far as one can foresee, our relations with them, commercial and social, can never be as intimate as those between England and India. The Filipinos are remote in space, remote in language and habits of thought. For most of us, the region is and must continue to be a mere name, a colorless picture of frail huts, tropical vegetation, and half-clad savages. Our own Southern States complain angrily that the North, lying next door, connected by a network of rails and wires, speaking the same tongue, does not grasp the peculiar problems of the South. But the politicians of the South are as ready as those of the North to thrust their clumsy fingers into a delicate mechanism, which lies beyond the trackless ocean, and concerning which they know nothing whatever. There is no country in Europe with which we are not relatively familiar through trade, travel, and immigration. But any man who should suggest that we could ever become so well acquainted with the people, say, of Italy and so sympathetic with them that we could set up a successful government in that peninsula would be clapped into a lunatic asylum. The folly of the attempt would be unspeakable; but it would be wisdom in comparison with our venture in the Philippines.

There is, then, but one course for us—to get out of the islands as quickly as possible. We may execute an agreement with the Powers of Europe and Asia that the Philippines shall remain independent, under a joint protectorate for a time, if need be. But the empire in the tropics about which we heard so much a few years ago would mean nothing but vexation and violence. The thorns of that jungle have already stripped from us the last shred of illusion. England's example, fortified by our own painful experiment, is proof that among the bulk of our citizens public opinion will not flow into the Philippine channel. Under such circumstances, our representatives in Congress and our executive officers will inevitably be careless and indifferent. While the vast majority of us remain apathetic, the Philippine interests will, as a matter of course, be attended to by our manufacturers of sugar and tobacco—men whose swinish instincts have been so cultivated by a protective tariff that rather than grant the Filipinos a fair chance to trade they would let them starve.

THE FINANCES OF JAPAN.

The present condition of the money markets of the world will prevent Japan from realizing her hope of issuing a refunding loan under favorable conditions in the near future. During the active demand for stocks and bonds which followed the flush of Japan's victory in 1905, hope was entertained that all the war debt could be refunded at 4 per cent., and at a price near par. The first refunding loan was well taken, but quotations have declined to about 85, and the recent failure to float a small amount for the Manchurian railways is a warning that in the way of refunding nothing more can be done at present. That is, the heavy interest charges imposed by the necessities of the war must continue to be borne by the Japanese people for a considerable time to come.

The effect of this burden of debt upon the economic progress of Japan will furnish an interesting problem. The general budget was swelled in 1906 by extraordinary receipts of 154,140,983 yen ($77,000,000), derived from such sources as increases in the land tax, income tax, excise duty on sugar, and stamp taxes, and the assumption of the tobacco monopoly. From these taxes the people are apparently to get little relief; for, in spite of the large revenue which they afforded, the outstanding debt grew in the fiscal year ending March 31, 1907, by about 115,000,000 yen ($57,000,000) as the result of continued outlays for strengthening the military and naval establishment and meeting the expenses growing out of the war with Russia. The issue of new loans in time of peace in order to maintain a great military establishment is not an encouraging feature of the situation, although such a course is by no means unusual among the governments of Western Europe.

Comparing the relative burden borne by Japan with that of other countries, we find that the position of Japan is not worse than that of other powerful states. Definite comparison is not easy, however, because of the wide difference between the economic power of the Western and that of the Oriental nations, as well as differences in the organization of the Government. The real burden of debt in the United States could be found only by adding the amount of State and municipal obligations to those of the Federal Government; but these local obligations were small here in 1861, and they are small in Japan at the present time. The national debt of Japan on March 31, 1907, stood at about 1,987,720,000 yen, or nearly $1,000,000,000. This was regarded as a staggering load when it was imposed upon France by Germany in 1870, but it was easily thrown off by a people so rich in savings as that of France. The United States, at the close of the Civil War, with a population which was considerably less than that of Japan to-day, labored under a war debt of $2,221,311,978. Our productive power per capita,

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moreover, was at that time nothing like what has been attained with the development of machinery and the extension of railways within the past generation. The per capita debt of Japan on March 31, 1907, was 45.012 yen, or about $22.60. The per capita debt of the United States at the present time is less than $11, but in 1865 it was approximately $63.50. Judging by these figures, the people of Japan are only a little more than one-third as heavily burdened as were those of the United States at the close of the Civil War. If economic power is taken into account, however, it is probable that we, even at that date, were superior in producing capacity to the Japanese at the present moment.

There is no reason to fear the inability of Japan to meet her obligations. The interest charge per capita cannot exceed materially $1.15, or 5 per cent. upon the outstanding debt. What is more to be feared than inability to meet interest charges just now is the increase of the debt to meet annual deficits caused by extraordinary expenditures for military and naval purposes, such as have at various times nearly emptied the treasuries of France, Spain, and Italy. Everything relating to the fiscal situation in Japan teaches the lesson of conservatism and the peaceful development of the large territories already won in Formosa and on the Asiatic mainland, rather than reaching out for new conquests at the expense of binding upon the backs of the Japanese people burdens too grievous to be borne.

THE SCIENTIFIC GUESS.

Before the Chemical Section of the British Association, the chairman, Prof. Arthur Smithells of Leeds, recently complained that science was going too fast. By this he meant not that knowledge is being accumulated too rapidly, but that men of science, by rash theories, are often in danger of being forced to retrace their steps. "A steady head is required," he said, and we may well ask, "whither are we going and where is the path of progress and safety?" Yet he added, "there is no reason for panic," in spite of "sensational language" employed by certain physicists. These remarks were evidently directed against those who are not only asserting the composite nature of the chemical "elements," but are attacking the atomic theory itself. In reply, Sir Oliver Lodge writes to *Nature*, protesting against the distrust of physics which is entertained by many chemists, and making light of that pessimism which fears premature hypotheses. He maintains that in science there is room for all kinds of workers, and that we are none the worse for conjectures which may, after all, prove to be unfounded. In spite of recent discoveries, the atomic theory, he thinks, may still be held, if it is useful to hold it.

The issue here raised is a very old one put into a new form. Ever since the time of Newton, with his ironical *non fingo*, there has been a dispute among logicians and *Naturforscher* as to the legitimacy of the scientific guess. Yet history shows clearly enough the value of the hypothetical method, and Sir Oliver is justified in his defence of it. For many years the dominant influence of Bacon made British inquirers very cautious in arriving at conclusions concerning nature. But for more than a century England has been the birthplace of some of the most far-reaching scientific conjectures in the history of investigation. The validity of the method might be demonstrated *prima facie* by the number of remarkable discoveries which have been made, as it were, by accident. Haüy chanced to drop a piece of calc-spar on a stone pavement and thereby came upon the law of crystallization; Goethe saw the bone of a sheep lying on the shore, and at a glance was led to form the vertebrate theory of the skull. If these achievements can be reached by accident, much more is likely to be, and has actually been, accomplished through the instrumentality of an hypothesis. In every case, however, where chance occurrences or guesses have had profitable results, the observer has been a trained man; for, as Lagrange remarked, such accidents happen only to those who deserve them. It is, moreover, quite true that many conclusions which seem to have been reached by some lucky exercise of the scientific imagination are in reality the result of long and patient experiment or mathematical calculation such as preceded the guesses and subsequent discoveries of Euler and Herschel. On the contrary, the atomic theory itself, about which Professor Smithells is so solicitous, was framed *a priori* in an age when scientific experiment was rare. What may have led Leucippus and Democritus to take such a view of the ultimate constitution of matter may never be known; but the conception certainly did not originate in the laboratory. There are indeed many well-established principles of science which, hinted at and formulated during the period of Greek and Roman philosophy, have been verified in modern times. In proof, one has but to turn to the pages of Aristotle and Lucretius, and find there, for example, the differentiation of species in Natural History, and the law of evolution in Physics.

Objection can be urged against the free use of hypothesis only when it is employed as a final conclusion, not as something to be justified by experiment. At the time of the early debates on the Darwinian theory, Huxley invented the happy term "working hypotheses" to denote an unproved theory adopted as a basis of investigation and experiment. And even those who were most active in opposing Darwin were forced to admit that his undemonstrated speculation gave an impetus to the revelation of nature without precedent in the annals of science. In vain has it been objected that the hypothesis of evolution does not account for the origin of life or the origin of mind. The vast number of facts for which it does account entitle it to a scientific standing, although it began as little else than a conjecture. At first it was received with skeptical surprise, and opposed with abuse. It has now become, with certain modifications, the commonplace principle upon which every man of science proceeds.

Yet so strong is the suspicion surrounding the employment of hypothesis, that logicians who ought to know better make rules to which they think it should conform. In his "Principles of Science," Jevons, for example, asserts that an hypothesis should agree with the laws of nature. But the laws of nature are not so fixed that such a rule can be rationally observed. In the time of Galileo it was a law of nature that the sun moved around the earth. When new facts are discovered, old laws of nature often have to go by the board. Yet it is one of the most encouraging things incident to scientific inquiry that the greater the accumulation of facts, the higher the probability of right conjecture.

LEST WE FORGET.

Fifty years ago you might meet in the west of Ireland ragged peasants who had whole books of the Æneid by heart—such at least is the assertion recently made in the English House of Commons. The inference is that familiarity with Virgil was not unusual in parts of Ireland in the middle of the last century, but that it is rare now. In this form of erudition American students have never, within our personal recollection, been able to rival the Irish. Few even of the eldest of us, can do more than repeat scattered phrases from Virgil and an ode or two of Horace; and members of the rising generation seem to be committing practically nothing to memory, in Latin, English, or any other language. The late Prof. Francis James Child of Harvard, an old-fashioned man, used to ask his classes in Chaucer, Shakespeare, and Milton to get several pages by heart—a mere trifle, perhaps not more than five or six hundred lines a term. Light as was the task, some of the youngsters were appalled by it; but the master was inexorable: a boy who could not commit a few hundred lines might just as well shut up shop and go home. Professor Child occasionally maintained with much vivacity the paradox that before the era of cheap printing—perhaps of any printing—literary culture was more widely diffused

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than now. In those happy days men fed on the great literature preserved by oral tradition—sagas and ballads—things worth knowing and having at your tongue's end. But at present men debauch their minds with the trivialities and vulgarities of the newspapers. Furthermore, the person who had stored up a collection of these fine poems, who carried a "Golden Treasury" in his head, had trained not merely his taste, but also his memory.

On this argument we need not lean too heavily, for Professor Child was, as we have said, an old-fashioned man; though not destitute of humor, he was indifferent to comic supplements; though fond of a good novel, he could not even name the six best sellers of the week. But sometimes a fogy will blunder upon truth; and certainly one idea which underlay Professor Child's paradox is wholly tenable: that a memory which is thoroughly disciplined, and which retains verbatim many masterpieces of prose and verse, is one of the best products of a liberal education. Time was, we grant, when some teachers cultivated the memories of their pupils too exclusively. You learned by heart all the tables in the arithmetic, all the rules in the grammar, all the words in the spelling-book, most of the important paragraphs and all of the dates in the history, and many of the pieces in the reader. Then the cry arose that children were becoming mere parrots; they had good memories, but they could not reason. Since the reaction against this method set in, the practice has been to learn little or nothing by rote. That process, once regarded as so salutary, is discarded as mere barren drudgery, which makes school disagreeable. As amusement is both the means and end of education, modern pedagogy has spent its energy in inventing various forms of entertainment which are supposed—apparently because they can accomplish no other result—to develop the faculty of reason. Our boys and girls are to master but few brute facts, and these few they are allowed to state in their own hazy and inaccurate language. In all branches of study, precision is carefully avoided. We are reaching that condition described by Cardinal Newman, in which "learning is to be without exertion, without attention, without toil, without grounding, without advance, without finishing." In history, as Prof. William MacDonald told the readers of the *Nation* last week, many schools do not teach dates at all, and the answers to examination questions are so vague that one cannot tell whether "the writer really knows anything about the subject." In arithmetic we have attained the ideal of that Massachusetts teacher who boasted: "My pupils may not know the multiplication table, but they know something far more precious, the meaning of multiplication."

We have discovered also that if a prodigious memory does not make a philosopher, neither does total lack of memory; that the intellects of our offspring, in spite of all advantages, are not much more powerful than our own. We begin to suspect that at a certain period of childhood time spent in ratiocination is largely wasted, while drill of the memory is fruitful. At this stage the mind is little more than a receptacle for information of every kind; the first step is acquisition, gathering with both hands; the second and much later step is reduction of the heaps of fact to order and system. It is unnecessary to dwell on the virtue of exact knowledge and of the retentive memory which ministers to such exactness. School is now about the only place which does not offer a high premium for this faculty. Another point which we shall merely mention is that the lad who is encouraged or allowed to follow the prevalent mode of putting everything into "his own words" not only becomes slipshod, but he misses an important opportunity to enlarge his vocabulary and develop his powers of expression. For learning skilfully phrased rules of grammar and arithmetic, dry as they seem, helps toward that goal which we have in view in memorizing passages from the best literature.

But the best literature gives us something besides the excellent drill, and that is a standard of taste. It was Matthew Arnold who urged us "to have always in one's mind lines and expressions of the great masters, and to apply them as a touchstone to other poetry." There is no better critical method; indeed, no other. The boy who carries in his memory twenty-five or thirty pages made up from Shakespeare, Milton, Byron, Wordsworth, Tennyson, and Browning is not likely to hail as a heaven-born genius the latest clever versifier. He will, however, have an enthusiasm for the best, and that is no small thing to get from school or college. At this moment, no great living poet dominates our generation as Byron dominated his, or Tennyson his—no one to set our blood afire and set us to declaiming, no one, not even Swinburne and Kipling. But though we lack the prophet and seer who speaks to us of our own time in words which we cannot forget if we would, we may still turn back to the mighty poets who remain contemporary through all the centuries, and we may keep their lines forever present in the memory and echoing in the heart.

A LONG WAY AFTER POE.

Poe is so generally recognized as the father of the detective story that it hardly needs a magazine article by Prof. Brander Matthews, "Poe and the Detective Story," in *Scribner's*, to recall his services to this branch of literary art. Poe, says Professor Matthews, "transported the detective story from the group of tales of adventure into the group of portrayals of character. By bestowing upon it a human interest he raised it in the literary scale." In doing this he marked the way for some of the most voluminous and popular authors of his own and the next century. A large and increasing number of writers have tried their hands at the kind of story that Poe invented, and some of them have succeeded. The statement that Sherlock Holmes is the most widely known figure created by a living writer is, we suppose, hardly open to question.

It is a remark of Sir Conan Doyle himself that "the writer is left with only one quality, that of intellectual acuteness, with which to endow his hero." Those who follow Poe—at a long distance—make somewhat pathetic attempts to differentiate their heroes. These characters have been distinguished by bald heads, crazy thatches of hair, commanding figures, official positions, private retainers, offices down town, "lodgings" up town, but to very little purpose. Scratch any one of the tribe and you find a more or less successful imitation of Dupin. And beside each of them travels a counterpart of Poe's anonymous reporter, or Doyle's Dr. Watson. No one thinks in these days of charging a new writer with plagiarism, or even lack of originality, because he writes a series of stories about mysteries solved by a preternaturally clever deductive reasoner whose acts are reported by a preternaturally stupid friend and ally. These are features of a form that has now become conventional, like the fourteen lines of a sonnet, the pair of comic lovers in a rural drama, or the three volumes of the old-time novel. There are not nine and sixty ways of constructing detective stories; there is only one way. The rules of the game have been worked out and the devotees of the detective story, who are found in high and low station, among old and young, know these rules and resent any departure from them. It might be added to the current estimate of Poe's service in this department of letters that these rules go back to his small collection of detective stories, and that very few of his imitators have been able to keep to them consistently.

The Stock Exchange itself is not founded to a greater extent on confidence than the good detective story. The real detectives of Mulberry Street or Scotland Yard are misled every day by misstatements of fact, errors of observation, plain lies. The detective of fiction should never be so misled. When he errs it should be because he has drawn the wrong conclusions from evidence in itself reliable. If he fires his revolver at an apparition, and there is no sound of breaking glass, the reader

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has a right to say, "Well, it wasn't a mirror," and is justly indignant when he is told later that the marksman merely missed his aim. The detective of fiction is likewise, under the rules, discouraged from discovering his important evidence at the last moment. To illustrate, one of this year's crop of long detective stories is concerned with the murder, in succession, always on the thirtieth day in the month, of the five sons of a retired army officer. Since the young men had neither friends nor enemies in common, the suggestion is at once made that the murderer must be some one who is avenging some past wrong against the father. The father is interrogated, and states that he knows of no personal enemy, and has wronged no one in his long life. The reader is thereupon entitled to discard all theories having to do with the old gentleman's past; and for nearly three hundred pages follows an amazingly intricate structure of plot. The reader learns various ingenious reasons why persons with no grudge against the father should still have desired the death of all the sons. He sees one person after another suspected and exonerated. Then, on page 280, a veiled woman comes into the story, and it appears that the officer on the thirtieth day of a bygone month had hanged two of his natural sons, and their mother was giving him tit for tat. That is an excellent example of the detective story as it ought not to be.

Poe knew the art of mystifying without resorting to the concealment of clues. Capt. Kidd's cipher in "The Gold Bug" is given the reader in full to decipher, if he can. Half-way through "The Murders in the Rue Morgue" the reader has every reason that Dupin had to supply the mischievous ourang-outang, if only he has the wit to put his facts together. It is still a paradox that Poe, the literary artist, should be the founder of a school of fiction in which, as in the puzzle corner of a newspaper, bad and slovenly writing is practically no bar to success.

OVERDONE INSTRUCTION IN ENGLISH.

When the teachers take up their work in college or school this autumn, how many of them are thinking on their noble vocation, their sacred trust, their great allies of exultations and agonies, and how many are musing on boy's unconquerable mind, and, with A. C. Benson, are calling the profession "a dingy trade"? More to the point, how many are looking at their actual work, and considering that old reproach of a monstrous disproportion between the energy expended and the results obtained? It is certain that as the great army falls into line for its campaign, many a groan goes up for the heavy knapsacks and the cumbersome arms; yet in at least one branch of the service, in the preparatory instruction of English, a very simple remedy lies at hand. At least half of the new fangled accoutrements should be thrown away.

Why and how this should be done seems reasonably clear when one considers how the practical and simple purpose in English teaching has been horribly overweighted with æsthetic intentions. Vernacular literature, which ought to be studied mainly by sample and in its most direct and obvious appeal, has been crowded into elementary instruction, in such bulk as to make the ideal schoolboy or schoolgirl of seventeen a walking reference library, a kind of hundred-best-books in one volume, calf. Moreover, despite this ado about systematic reading and "classics," we are simply pushing our children into a further stage of the great American educational disease, that making play of our work and disguising the disagreeable, that coddling, wheedling, open-fires-and-hot-lunch system, which begins with sugar-plums on the letters of the alphabet and comes to perfection with "Ivanhoe" as a text-book. Some of us thank our stars that we read "Ivanhoe" in precious and productive hours stolen from algebra, and that our general knowledge of English "classics" rests on the sure foundation of a neglect of dut .

Why does the average boy still write an English incorrect in its essentials, while, on the other hand, he is fairly sure to add, subtract, multiply, divide, with practical correctness? Because in the first case he is hurried into the larger world of composition before he performs instinctively the primary processes of the sentences and paragraphs. And why this hurry? Look for answer at the maze of subjects and books through which he must toil before he attains the promised land of college. We need to go about half of the way back to ancient practice. During the past thirty years, since higher education settled down to its work in this land, we have diverted the best part of English literature into school and college courses. An older generation, to be sure, was starved; but that is no excuse for the gorging and rich food of our own day. Then there were no professors of English in college, no classics and general English reading in school, save by sample, and for such ends as elocution and parsing. Even for these ends masterpieces were mainly shunned; a good speech like "Sink or swim," a sound little poem like "Alone I walked the ocean strand," or one of Croly's sonorous Roman things, sufficed. Now the deepest and noblest lyric is culled out for first-readers, while the sub-freshman must have come into intimacy with the mind and art of Shakespeare. A child who would naturally kill flies on a window, or play at Indian massacres, is asked to watch the daffodils with that inward eye which is the bliss of solitude; a boy of seventeen is made quite at home with the Macbeths.

Such a lamentable forcing of the game may indeed be left to youth's stolid and magnificent inattention. But the pity of it all lies in an invasion and forced possession of lighter literature which time can seldom cure. Vernacular literature, after all, was written to be read; provided it still speaks our speech and thinks our thoughts, it should not be studied, at least in schools, as an end in itself. College courses in Shakespeare, in Chaucer, are obviously invaluable; they meet minds fit to grasp the deeper meanings of literature and yet able to come at these meanings only by careful study of expression and environment. Literature, so far as it is studied in school, should be ancillary; it is meant to make the boy understand and appreciate what he reads, and to prepare him for the special work of college. Instead, literature is taught for itself; romances, novels, essays, narrative poems, satires, what not, are read as a task. What is spared for the actual reader who is not under the ferule? What lands are left unknown, what seas uncharted, for those voyages of discovery, even under the black flag, which we made in happier days? What gave the teacher these rights in the new world of youth, and why should he spoil the sense of privacy in conquest? There are no more silent seas; the voice of the pedagogue resounds over all. Hazlitt nowadays would be put to his shifts to find a new book for one of those delightful sessions—over chicken and port wine, was it not?—in the lonely tavern. He would have read all the romances, or heard about them, at school under genial Mr. Blandly, the English master and former halfback. Nor are the romances alone imperilled. Nothing is safe from the series-editor. Burton's "Anatomy of Melancholy" seems so; but there is a section of it, excellent reading, which one day will be "waled wi' judicious care" and flung at the heads of our grandsons.

We said that half of the modern accoutrements should be flung away—not all. The trouble with English readings in the preparatory schools is that they cover too much ground and go too far up the heights. We should return to reading what is meant to teach the pupil how to read, and we should avoid too much æsthetic. In poetry, epic and descriptive should be preferred to emotional and dramatic verse; certainly this should be done in the lower grades, and even in the higher grades there is rare occasion for the intenser mood of literature. In school, the best is not good enough; the average, the sprightly, the attractive, the typical, should be preferred to those great masterpieces which rend our human nature and lay bare the foundation of things. Keep that dynamite for the open. Prepare boys to read the best, and make them fit for it; but leave the great things for their maturer hours. Boys are in the ballad stage of literature; there is stuff for them in the "Cheviot," and "Sir Patrick Spens" is better suited to schoolroom grief than "Evelyn Hope."

The present list of books for study and reading could be cut down to half its bulk. Precious time would thus be saved, and should be given to those subjects which call for hard, persistent, disagreeable work. For, after all, we Americans are too much at our ease in the school, as we are in business ethics and in the administration of justice. We have a surplus of accommodation to circumstances. Let the schoolboys lay their noses to the grindstone at least three-quarters of the time, and let the teacher reserve that affable archangel smile for privileged moments. Let him be a modified Busby, and we shall soon look for Drydens again.

F. B. GUMMERE.

Haverford, Pa.

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NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

The valuable collection of first editions of American authors brought together by the late J. Chester Chamberlain is to be sold by the Anderson Auction Company of this city during the coming season. Mr. Chamberlain, who was a successful electrical engineer, turned his attention in 1900 to collecting as a pastime, and at his death in 1905 he had brought together a remarkable lot. He looked for books of such authors only as had achieved fame before 1876; that is, the literary work of our first century. His collections of the works of great New England writers, Hawthorne, Longfellow, Lowell, Emerson, and Whittier, were very nearly complete, and include many of the rarest items, some of which have never before been offered at public sale. Shortly after he began, he acquired in one purchase the large and important collection of Beverly Chew. While Mr. Chamberlain never gave special prominence to "presentation" and "association" copies, he understood their interest, and accumulated a goodly number; in the same way, while he never made special effort to secure manuscripts and letters, his library contains many autographs. He was so fortunate as to procure from the descendants of George Washington Greene, for whom Longfellow cherished such a fondness, all the existing letters written to Greene by Longfellow, from the Bowdoin College days, and also the series of Longfellow's own books, given by Longfellow to Greene, beginning with "Outre-Mer," concerning which Longfellow wrote before publication: "I think I shall put it out in numbers or parts, and shall, of course, send you a copy as soon as it peeps." Many of these letters have never been published, or published only in part, and some of the printed letters were much altered.

Mr. Chamberlain's plan was to get first editions in the original bindings, and in the best condition possible. By nature and training an investigator, he studied the books themselves, and was able to make a number of interesting discoveries. For example, copies of Lowell's first collection of poems, "A Year's Life," 1841, have been frequently offered as "lacking the slip of errata." Mr. Chamberlain proved that the book was first sent out without an errata slip. He traced three varieties of the published book; first, without errata slip; second, with the slip pasted in *after* the books were bound; third, with the slip pasted down upon the last signature *before* the book was bound. Mr. Chamberlain's own copy (formerly Mr. Chew's) is the copy presented by Lowell to Tennyson, and of the first variety, sent out before the errors were discovered. Longfellow's "Kavanagh," 1849, is common, but very interesting, as there were at least four editions, or issues, during the first year of publication. Mr. Chamberlain discovered that some copies were without the word "End" at the bottom of page 188. This word was not added until the third issue. Reading of a large number of copies showed slight variations in text. The issue which we may call the first, has, in the last line of page 173, "At the sight." In later issues this sentence begins "To Cecilia." This is the only discoverable difference between issues i. and ii. Besides the addition of "End" in issue iii., the words "now only," p. 180, line 6, were altered to "less than." Several additional corrections were made in the fourth issue, among them:

P. 25, l. 6, "Cartwright" corrected to "Wainwright."
P. 14, l. 14, "Arian" corrected to "Arius."
P. 132, l. 2, "yellow" altered to "golden."

The Catalogue of the Hawthorne Exhibition at the Grolier Club in 1904 was prepared by Mr. Chamberlain and in it he first made public numerous interesting notes. Had he lived, he would ultimately have published his notes on other authors. Mrs. Chamberlain, as a memorial to her husband, contemplates printing bibliographies of the more important authors; and these are now in preparation. They will be compiled by Luther S. Livingston, principally from Mr. Chamberlain's books and assisted by his notes; but descriptions of books not owned by him and additional notes will be included. The effort will be to make the bibliographies as complete as possible, especially with a view to meeting the wants of collectors. Only "first editions in book form" will be included.

The *Nation* noted several months ago that Bertram Dobell of London had discovered a manuscript copy of Sidney's "Arcadia." He writes to the London *Athenæum* of September 7 that he has procured still another copy, formerly in the Ashburnham collection, and recently sold at Sotheby's auction. He adds:

This second copy, though not so valuable as the first, inasmuch as it wants some leaves, and does not contain the "Dyvers Songes and Sonnettes," is yet an interesting and important one. Though the textual variations in it from the first MS. are many, it yet agrees with it in all essential points, except in the omission of a few passages. The evidence furnished by the two MSS., together with other evidence since discovered, makes it certain that in them we have the work as it was originally conceived and written by Sir Philip Sidney. As thus written, it was a much simpler and clearer work than it afterwards became. . . . That the story, as thus told, gains very much in interest and unity of effect will easily be understood by any one who has once attempted to make his way through the intricacies of the printed versions. What portions of the additions which appear in the printed copies were the work of the original author it is difficult to determine, though there is no doubt that the story, as it is given in the folio edition, was much altered and added to by the Countess of Pembroke. . . . In one highly interesting passage which appears in the MSS. (but not in the printed copies) the author, who, as is well known, introduces himself into the story under the name of Philisides, gives a short autobiography of himself, and an account of his love disappointments. Though I will not say that this passage supplies any particularly novel information as to the author's character or the events of his life, it is at any rate not a little interesting thus to see in what light he regarded himself and his own achievements. Here, as elsewhere, he depicts himself as a somewhat melancholy and disappointed, or at least disillusioned, person, who found himself, as all poetical and imaginative natures must do, at variance with the real world, which differed so much from the ideal one which existed in his own spirit. That these MSS. should be now in the hands of Messrs. Dodd, Mead & Co. of New York, and are therefore likely to find a permanent home in the United States, may possibly be a matter of regret, though not of surprise, to most Englishmen. But that they will go into very good hands can hardly be doubted; and probably they will be utilized before long for the preparation of a critical edition of the "Arcadia," which has only now become possible, owing to their discovery.

Correspondence.

WHO CORRECTED DE FOE'S COPY IN "ROBINSON CRUSOE?"

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The latest edition (Everyman's Library) of "Robinson Crusoe" in the account of the storm in Yarmouth Roads, reads (p. 6, l. 21), "the cables veered out to the better end." In Austin Dobson's *facsimile* (London: Elliot Stock, 1883) of the first edition (1719), where everything, including the type, is carefully reproduced, it is "better end." De Foe must have used the nautical phrase, "the bitter end." A cable has two ends: the anchor end, fast to the anchor, and the bitter end, attached to the bitts. The rhetorical figure "to the bitter end" means to the last extremity, and does not involve painfulness or acerbity, as frequently implied. Is Dobson's a literal copy (with "obvious" mistakes corrected), or did De Foe's genuine first edition read "better," owing to the zeal of an intelligent compositor, or to the proofreader's oversight? Intermediate editions are not easily consulted, but it would be interesting to determine how far this error dates back. W.

Southwest Harbor, Me., September 2.

The phrase in question in "Robinson Crusoe" reads, "the Cables vered out to the better End," in the first edition; and also in the second and fourth editions, all published in 1719.—[ED. NATION.

Notes.

The list of books to be issued from the University of Chicago Press this autumn or early in the winter includes "Value and Distribution," a survey of economic theory on these points, by Herbert J. Davenport; "Reëxamination of Exchange Value," a study of the principles regulating exchange value as they work in the market of today, by Rufus S. Sprague; "Chapters in Rural Progress," by Kenyon L. Butterfield; "Outdoor Labor for Convicts," containing an English translation of all the reports made to the last International Prison Congress at Budapest, together with accounts of various farm colonies in Belgium and Switzerland, and of outdoor work of prisoners in the United States, by Charles Richmond Henderson; "Adam Smith and Modern Sociology," a study in the methodology of the social sciences, by Prof. Albin W. Small, the first volume of a series which the author will edit on the preparations for sociology in the fragmentary work of the nineteenth-century social sciences; "Love and Loyalty," twenty-three sermons by Jenkin Lloyd Jones; "The English Reformation and Puritanism, and Other Lectures and Addresses," by the late Dean Eri B. Hulbert; "Descriptive Geography of Palestine," by Lewis B. Paton; "Ancient Chronology, volume i., from 3400 to 1050 B. C.; "Sidelights on Biblical Chronology," volume i., from 3400 to 1050 B. C., both by Olaf A. Toffteen, the first two volumes in a series to be called Researches in Biblical Archæology; "Studies in the Early History of Ancient Italy," historical and geographical investigations, by Ettore

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Pais; "A Short History of Wales," by Owen M. Edwards; "Old German Love Songs," selected and translated by Frank C. Nicholson; "Heralds of American Literature," a study of the lives and services of a group of typical writers of the Revolutionary and National periods, by Annie Russell Marble; "Literature in the Elementary School," by Mrs. W. D. MacClintock; and "English Poetry," a selection of representative English poems of the nineteenth century, by Prof. Walter C. Bronson.

G. P. Putnam's Sons announce as forthcoming "The Altar Fire," by A. C. Benson, a series of essays connected by a thread of narrative; "The Folk Afield," a collection of short stories by Eden Philpotts; "A Princess of Intrigue: Madame de Longueville, and Her Times," by H. Noel Williams; "Annals of St. Michael's," the centenary history of St. Michael's Protestant Episcopal Church, New York, prepared by the present rector, the Rev. John P. Peters; "Elizabeth and Philip, or the Whole Story of the Spanish Armada," by Martin Hume; "Milan: the House of the Sforza," by C. M. Ady, the first of a series, Historic States of Italy; the fourth volume of Petrus Johannes Blok's "History of the People of the Netherlands"; and the third volume of the Writings of Samuel Adams, edited by Harry Alonzo Cushing.

The fall announcement list of Little, Brown & Co. includes "John Harvard and His Times," by Henry C. Shelley; "The Woman in the Rain and Other Poems," by Arthur Stringer; "Italy, the Magic Land," by Lilian Whiting; "Some Neglected Aspects of War," by Capt. A. T. Mahan, to which are added "The Power that Makes for Peace," by H. S. Pritchett, and "The Capture of Private Property at Sea," by Julian Corbett; "The Mongols," by the late Jeremiah Curtin; and "What Can a Young Man Do?" by Frank West Rollins, ex-Governor of New Hampshire.

The American Baptist Publication Society announces as forthcoming "Christ and Buddha," by Dr. J. N. Cushing, with an introduction by the Rev. Henry M. King; "The Morning Hour of American Baptist Missions," by the Rev. A. L. Vail; "The Formation of the New Testament," by the Rev. George Hooper Ferris; "The Boy Jesus," by the Rev. Cortland Myers; "Christian Agnosticism," by Prof. E. H. Johnson; and "That Blessed Hope," by the Rev. David Heagle.

Following the publication of other records of the findings of the American archæological expedition to Syria in 1899-1900, under the patronage of V. Everit Macy, I. N. Phelps Stokes, and others, Prof. William Kelly Prentice of Princeton has prepared for publication by the Century Company this fall all the epigraphical documents in Greek and Latin found by the expedition. The Century Company also announces "A Tuscan Childhood," by Lisi Cipriani; a new book of verse by Richard Watson Gilder, "The Fire Divine"; and David Homer Bates's "Lincoln in the Telegraph Office."

Harper & Brothers announce "The Indians' Book," a revelation of the Indian's mind, beliefs, character, songs, and legends, by Natalie Curtis, with an introductory note by President Roosevelt; "The Weavers," by Sir Gilbert Parker; "Eben Holden's Last Day a-Fishing," by Irving Bacheller; and "Ancestors," by Gertrude Atherton.

Thomas Whittaker has imported "Country Communion Classes," by Arthur Lethbridge and V. S. S. Coles of Pusey House, Oxford; and "The Blessed Virgin and all the Company of Heaven," by the Rev. Dr. A. T. Wirgman, with an introduction by Canon Knox Little.

The Fleming H. Revell Co. will issue at once "Fragments that Remain," a volume of sermons and addresses by the late Maltbie Davenport Babcock; and "Christ's Service of Love," sermons by the Rev. Hugh Black.

Henry Holt & Co. announce as forthcoming an "Atlas of European History," by Prof. Earle W. Dow of the University of Michigan; and "Wage-Earners' Budgets," a study of standards and cost of living by Louise B. More.

Dodd, Mead & Co. expect to publish this month "The Stooping Lady," by Maurice Hewlett.

The "Itinerary of Benjamin of Tudela" is soon to be published by Henry Frowde. The author, who lived in the twelfth century, one hundred years before Marco Polo, gives detailed descriptions of Rome, Constantinople, Palestine, Bagdad, and Cairo in the time of the Crusades, and furnishes particulars of the numerous Hebrew communities which he visited. The volume contains a critical text, translation, and commentary, by Marcus N. Adler. The Hebrew text is based upon a manuscript acquired by the British Museum, which has been collated with codices in other libraries, and it differs in many respects from the version hitherto known. Facsimiles of the MSS. are supplied as well as complete Hebrew and English indexes, and a map showing the route followed by the traveller.

The latest volume in the Standard Socialist Series (Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co.) is "Socialism, Positive and Negative," by Robert Rives La Monte. The author modestly says that he has no ambitious hope that the book "will convert anyone to socialism"; he intends it rather as an explanation of "what is meant by the oft-used words 'Marxian Socialism.'" The work is therefore not a detailed argument in support of the author's views but a brief outline of them—a *credo* rather than an *apologia*.

A new volume in the Cambridge Historical Series, edited by G. W. Prothero, is "Modern Spain, 1815-1898," by the late H. Butler Clarke (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons). The author was of acknowledged competence in matters, especially literary, pertaining to Spain, and his book is almost the only, and certainly the best, account in English of the unfortunate history of that country during the nineteenth century. A few important points are somewhat slurred, as, for instance, the matter of the Hohenzollern candidacy; the index is poor, and there are more slips and misprints than is usual in this series, but on the whole the book may be warmly recommended. Its attitude is historical and, a special point for readers on this side of the Atlantic, its presentation of the Cuban question is temperate and convincing.

A new edition of Prof. John R. Commons's "Proportional Representation" (The Macmillan Co.) reproduces, apparently from the same plates, the text of the original edition of 1896, with appendices on the legalization of political parties, direct legislation, referendum and initiative in city government, "proportional representation from an American point of view," and "representation of interests." The ten years which have elapsed since the first appearance of the work have not witnessed much growth of popular interest in proportional representation in this country; and the only important advance abroad has been the adoption of the system in Belgium, in 1899. For some form of initiative and referendum, however, as well as for the direct primary, there is obviously increasing favor; and it seems rather a pity that Professor Commons, whose exposition of proportional representation has so long had definitive value, should not have taken the trouble to prepare for this edition a systematic exposition of the other subjects also, instead of merely reproducing a group of occasional addresses and magazine articles in the form of an appendix.

We have received from Principal John Rhŷs of Jesus College, Oxford, a reprint of a monograph, "The Celtic Inscriptions of France and Italy," contributed by him to the second volume of the Proceedings of the British Academy. It is an article of unusual interest and importance, being the first systematic examination of Continental Celtic inscriptions since the publication of Dr. Whitley Stokes's "Celtic Declension" in 1885. A number of new monuments have come to light in the intervening years; and whereas Dr. Stokes's list contained only twenty-eight, Professor Rhŷs now mentions thirty-nine, not including three of Dr. Stokes's which he rejects as non-Celtic. Several more remain which the author has not yet succeeded in visiting, and he promises to deal with these at some future time. Professor Rhŷs, by reason both of his long experience with inscriptions and of his thorough knowledge of the Celtic languages, is one of the most competent of living scholars to undertake such an investigation. It is unnecessary to say that his discussion is learned and brilliant, and cannot be neglected by future students of the subject. He has not arrived at a system of interpretations which will be finally satisfactory, but in view of the scantiness and doubtful character of the materials this was hardly to be expected. We are bound to add also that Professor Rhŷs's method seems to us at times rather too casual, proceeding too much by disconnected guesses and arbitrary combinations to yield wholly convincing results. But he has measurably advanced the problem toward solution, if only by the reexamination of the readings with his practised eye. Many of his suggested interpretations commend themselves as likely, and his criticisms of previous readings and renderings are always acute. In his discussion of the important group of doubtful inscriptions in the Greek alphabet he appears to us to have successfully met the arguments of M. d'Arbois de Jubainville to prove them non-Celtic. And apart from its main conclusions, this article, like everything that Professor Rhŷs writes, is full of incidental observations of interest

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and value. Celtic grammarians and lexicographers and students of ethnology and religion will all find in it something to their purpose. A revised reading of one inscription, for example, yields a new epithet of the Mother-Goddesses; and another bears upon the identification of the Gaulish Esus with Mercury. In a short postscript Professor Rhŷs makes his contribution to the vexed Ligurian question, or at least registers his opinion about it.

Since children in schools must often be dealt with in masses rather than as individuals, the problems of school management will always be among the most important of which the teacher has to meet. Books on this subject are so numerous that a new one needs some unusual merit of manner or method to justify itself. Such justification exists in the case of "Classroom Management," by William Chandler Bagley (The Macmillan Co.). Its method is inductive. It states the precepts that will aid the teacher in mastering technique and interprets those precepts in the light of accepted psychological principles. Successful schoolroom practice must be the starting point from which valid principles of teaching and management are derived; and the author's data have been obtained chiefly from observation of such practice. He lays strong emphasis upon the importance of habit formation as a basic law of education. The book states both sides of the mooted questions. One is somewhat surprised to find the author a believer in the value of corporal punishment. While the book is written primarily for students of education in schools and colleges, it will be helpful to all teachers and will appeal to the most thoughtful and ambitious.

"Der Krimkrieg und die österreichische Politik," by Heinrich Friedjung (Stuttgart und Berlin: J. G. Cotta'sche Buchandlung Nachfolger), is an important contribution to the politcal and diplomatic history of Europe for the period of the Crimean war. Friedjung's work as Austrian historian of the disastrous eight years 1859-1866, and as Benedek's biographer and vindicator, has won for him such general esteem as an impartial and well-equipped scholar, that many official and private archives, which had been previously closed to historical inquiry, have been opened to him in Austria. His researches, undertaken for a work now in preparation upon the first decade of the reign of Francis Joseph, have been in consequence exceptionally fruitful; those upon the years of the Crimean war have brought to light so much of interest that he has found it impossible to bring his study of that conflict within the limits of a section of his more general work. Hence the present monograph. In his writings Friedjung takes no pains to propitiate Austrian officialdom or to excuse the past errors of his Government. Austria's conduct during the Crimean struggle was characterized by rank ingratitude toward Russia, by shameless forgetfulness of the immense service she had rendered by coöperating in the suppression of the Hungarian revolution of 1849; and his study is frankly critical. In revealing the inner workings of the Government, he clearly shows that it cannot even plead as an extenuating motive intelligent and solicitous regard for selfish national interests. From his researches it is evident that the Government had no positive views of what the country's best interests called for at this European crisis, the incapacity of those who were controlling her destinies, augmented by petty court intrigues, blinded Austria to any well-defined policy, and led her on the vacillating and disloyal course which alienated her friends and left her isolated to meet the disasters which the immediate future reserved for her. The paucity of Friedjung's detailed references to unpublished sources is much to be regretted.

"Wiener Stimmungsbilder," by Johannes Ziegler (New York: G. E. Stechert & Co.,) is one of those delightful little groups of sketches, fresh from the poet-artist's palette, which students of life and lovers of travel fondly re-read. Ziegler, although a native of Hamburg, who passed his early years in North Germany and Denmark, had the rare fortune, after taking up his residence in Vienna at a mature age, to come to know the inner life of the most complex and pleasure-seeking city of Austria, if not of the whole Continent. He lacks, perhaps, the closent touch with the *Volk*, steeped in dialect. With much the enthusiasm of a lusty *Bursch*, tempered by the conservatism of a man of affairs, Ziegler recalls his first day in Vienna, considers the charms of the Austrian capital as a place of residence, pictures again the narrow *Gasse* in which he lived, guarded by the ever-present and much liveried *Schutzmann*, mingles once more among the élite on the Kahlenberg, and bends the knee in devotion in the gorgeous St. Stephen's. So realistic are the sketches of the author, that whoever has exhilarated in the spring festivals of Vienna, eaten oysters or clinked glasses in the deep, wine-barrelled cellars, or become lost in the beauty of a Christmas-tree market, finds himself transported to the same scenes again. Ziegler's style is remarkable for a man whose early life was given up to shipbuilding. Twenty-six illustrations from washdrawings, and as many clever tailpieces in miniature, make the volume an attractive gift-book. Unhappily, as in the case of many foreign-printed books when compared with the American, the engravings are printed upon such inferior paper that they lose much of their exquisiteness.

G. E. Stechert & Co. also import "Du schöne Welt! Neue Fahrten und Wanderungen," by J. V. Widmann, a series of fresh impressions in Switzerland and Italy. Widmann is an ideal traveller. He sees vividly the green pastures and snowy summits near the Terra di Lavoro, the Torre di Pagano, Räzlibergalp and Kandersteg, and he has also an eye and a heart for every living thing. A practical question which the *Reisender* discusses at some length is the constant danger to human life in many of the Alpine hotels, due to their height, their narrow stairs and intricate windings, the kind of material of which they are constructed, their over crowding in the busy season, and the absence generally of any fire-escapes; making it not so ridiculous, after all, for Hans Christian Andersen to carry about with him in the Alps a rope ladder, which he always hung out of his window at night! The more one turns the pages of Widmann's story, the more one is impressed with the fact that this record of travel, chat about hotels and highways, tables-d'hôte and tally-ho, would, with all its literary excellence, be difficult to market in America, where the flashy Sunday newspaper supplement and the five and ten-cent magazine engross the attention of so many readers. The Americans are great travellers—for getting over long distance quickly and letting the footman and *Kellner* tell them what they have not seen—but the steadier-going German travels to see, learn, and be entertained.

Acting on the conviction that Jewish science and scholarship, largely from lack of coöperation, have not been the force in modern learned research that they should be, a new organization has been effected among European and especially German Jewish savants, called "Gesellschaft zur Förderung der Wissenschaft des Judentums." The society will issue an extensive series of works under the general title Grundriss der Gesamtwissenschaft des Judentums. This collection, consisting of about thirty-six works in about forty-five volumes, is to give the results of the ripest Jewish research in all those departments in which Jewish thought can exhibit its genius and spirit. There will be four general divisions: (1) Language and Linguistics; (2) The History of Israel and the History of Jewish Literature; (3) System of the Teachings of Judaism; (4) The Practical Theology of Judaism.

A journey in northern Persia, an account of which is given by A. F. Stahl in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, No. 6, has a special interest at this time, as it throws light on recent events in that country. The route was from the Russian frontier through Tabriz to Teheran, and thence to the Caspian. Everywhere there were indications of great natural resources undeveloped through the lack of Government and landowners' initiative. From a soil remarkably fertile and capable of bearing a great variety of grains, vegetables, fruits, and cotton, the peasant raises only enough to pay his rent and provide for his daily needs. If the crop fails, famine ensues. At Teheran a peaceful revolution was in progress. The people under the wise guidance of their Mollahs were making a great demonstration, their aim being not the overthrow but the reform of the Government. Many leading Persians assured Herr Stahl that the main object of the Progressists was "to develop the agricultural wealth of their country and to defend it from the arbitrary action of its stronger neighbor States." Dr. H. Steffen gives some facts in regard to the earthquake of August, 1906, in Chili, contained in a report of a Government commission of research, among the most important of which is that in the middle zone of the affected district there was an extraordinary vertical movement of the earth's surface. No. 7 contains an extended notice of Felix Oswald's "Treatise on the Geology of Armenia," characterized by the writer, F. Schaffer, on account of its "extremely vivid portrayal as one of the best books of its kind." The edition, he adds, consisting of only 104 copies, was printed by the author himself on a hand press, with illustrations, maps, and profiles colored by hand.

The *Annales de Géographie* has for its topic of greatest general interest in its

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last issue the question as to the best method of colonizing Algeria. In 1871 the Government made a gratuitous concession of land to such natives of Alsace and Lorraine as desired to preserve their French nationality, which offer was afterwards extended to all citizens of the republic. In order to determine whether this free gift or the selling of land is the better policy an investigation has been made as to the condition of 300 different communities during the years 1871-95, the report of which has just been published. It appears to be on the whole favorable to the free gift, this being the only successful inducement to the Frenchman to emigrate. Unless it prevails, Algeria is in danger of being colonized wholly by Spaniards and Italians. An interesting fact brought out by the investigation was the marked increase in the number of births among the colonists. In France, provision is made in respect to school houses for 12 children to every 100 inhabitants. In Algeria it is 16, "and in many agricultural districts this number is rapidly increasing." A. Métois contributes some facts relating to the present condition of the French Sahara gained during a recent visit to Insalah, a great commercial centre of the caravan trade. Among the other contents is a summary of M. Lacroix's studies of the eruption of Vesuvius in April, 1906, which lead him to the conclusion that volcanic explosions are not so much caused by the chemical composition of the magma as by its physical state, its fluidity, or viscosity. M. Dereims describes the high plateau of Bolivia, with a striking panoramic picture of the ravine in which the capital, La Paz, is situated.

Progress in Tibet since its recent opening to the outside world by the English expedition is indicated by the fact that a Chinese-Tibetan school has been established at Lhassa, the capital. In it young Chinese and Tibetans will learn the languages and literatures of China and Tibet as a preparation for Government employment in Tibet. A newspaper for circulation among the people of both inner and outer Tibet has also been started, the first in the Tibetan language. The Chinese Resident at Lhassa is evidently interested in this intellectual development of the country over which he rules, as these facts are to be found in his report to the home Government at Peking.

From Government statistics compilations have recently been made of the annual cost of educating a child in the schools in fifty-five German cities, each of over fifty thousand inhabitants. It appears that the cost in Leipzig is the highest, 92 marks. The lowest on the list is Spandau, 39 marks. In this whole list, however, there are only four cities that spend less than 50 marks. Samples of what other cities pay can be seen from the following: Frankfurt a. M., 91 marks; Karlsruhe, 89; Wiesbaden, 86; Dresden, 80; Munich, 79; Bremen, 72; Breslau, 67; Halle, 63.

The anti-foreign agitation which was inaugurated several years ago at the German technological institutes and was then transferred to the universities, is beginning to bear its fruits. According to the reports for the summer semester just closed the foreign contingent at the twenty-one universities of the Empire has for the first time in a quarter of a century suffered a decrease, the total of foreigners having been 3,766 students as compared with 4,151 of the preceding half-year and 3,889 of a year ago. Although this anti-foreign movement, which started within the student body and was only slightly seconded by the authorities, has been directed chiefly against Russians, and here again against the Jews and Jewesses in particular, the reduction in the attendance of non-Germans has been general. The European contingent decreased from 3,717 to 3,349; the American, from 302 to 261. The direct cause has been stricter regulations governing admission.

A steady growth in both the number of libraries in this State receiving local tax support and the total amount of such taxation is shown by the annual report of the New York State Library on public libraries. Of the 395 libraries now connected with the Education Department, 238 received tax support last year, as compared with 212 in 1905, 184 in 1904, and 176 in 1903—a gain of 35 per cent. in four years. This is fully commensurate with the gain in the number of libraries organized during this period. It appears, however, that there are still 157 free libraries duly registered by the Regents as maintaining a proper standard which have as yet received no local tax support and are dependent entirely on private beneficence and the bounty of the State. Of the forty-five cities of the State, there are seven which appropriate nothing for public libraries. The preceding year there were ten. The total amount of tax raised in the cities of the State for library support in 1906 was $1,025,086, being an increase of $136,969 over the amount for 1905.

An annual circulation of 410,538 volumes is reported by the Somerville (Mass.) Public Library, the second largest circulation shown by any New England library, and for places of the size of Somerville probably the largest of any library in the world. For each book in stock the average number of issues was about five and a half, and for each man, woman, and child in the city there was an average issue of six books. The total cost of operation for the year was $19,726, of which $9,547 was spent for salaries, $6,362 for books and periodicals, and $2,053 for binding. Leaving out of account the reading and reference work and estimating the total expenditure of the year in terms of circulation, the average cost per issue of book would be about four and four-fifths cents. The adoption of two interesting plans is announced by the librarian—the segregation of obsolete books, and the training of each member of the staff to become a specialist in some one department of literature. As to the treatment of obsolete books, he says:

These books should not be discarded; and I think, upon mature reflection, that they should not be sequestered from the general access of the public. They should be put in ranges by themselves and plainly labelled "obsolete books," and bear a placard stating that they have been withdrawn from the general stock of books because they are believed to be outdated, and consequently untrustworthy in the light of more recent knowledge.

Of his plan for developing a corps of book specialists, he says:

Early in the coming year, each member of the staff will be asked to make a specialty of some one department of the library and to become acquainted to as thorough an extent as possible with the bibliography of that department. Of course, it cannot be expected that busy members of the staff can become thorough students in any one of the classes of the Dewey classification; such an expectation would be absurd, even if directed toward college professors. But each member of the staff will be expected to know in a general way the books that are in the library relating to her specialty and to understand something of the relative value of the books.

Dr. James Adam of Cambridge University, England, died on August 30. He was born in Aberdeenshire in 1860, and after a distinguished course at the University of Aberdeen went to Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge. There also he won distinction. He was then appointed fellow and lecturer at Emmanuel College, and at the time of his death he was senior tutor. Among his publications were "The Nuptial Number of Plato," 1891, "The Educational Value of Classics," Texts to illustrate post-Aristotelian Philosophy, editions of Plato's Apology, "Crito," "Euthyphro," "Protagoras," and Republic (Text, 1897; Text and commentary in two volumes, 1902). His Gifford Lectures on Religion and Greek Philosophy are said to be nearly ready for publication.

The will of the late René François Armand Sully-Prudhomme bequeaths $20,000 to the French Academy for the advancement of letters and leaves his residence on the Faubourg St. Honoré, which contains many literary treasures, to the city of Paris for use as a public museum.

NOTES ON TEXT BOOKS.

Prof. A. Smithells in his opening address before the chemical section of the British Association for the Advancement of Science at its August meeting voiced the feelings of a large number of chemists when he complained that their science was being taken away from them:

The perplexities of chemists at the present day do not come, I think, from the novelty of the ideas that are being presented to them, but from the great rapidity with which the whole science is growing, from the invasion of chemistry by mathematics and, in particular, from the sudden appearance of the subject of radio-activity with its new methods, new instruments, and especially with its accompaniment of speculative philosophy. The most conspicuous development of the science during the past twenty years has been, of course, on the physical side, and abundant have been its fruits; but it has seemed to demand from chemists habits and endowments which they did not normally possess.

This protest, because it is so obviously futile, has both pathetic and humorous aspects. We have before us two good examples of the kind of book which the average chemist is unqualified by training, if not, as Professor Smithells implies, incapacitated by temperament, to use to advantage; Dr. Walther Nernst's "Experimental and Theoretical Applications of Thermodynamics to Chemistry" (Charles Scribner's Sons) and "A Text-Book of Electro-Chemistry," by Max Le Blanc, translated from the fourth German edition by Willis R. Whitney and John W. Brown (The Macmillan Co.). The former consists of the lectures given by the professor of physical chemistry in the University of Berlin at Yale last fall on the Silliman foundation. This provides for "lectures designed to illustrate the

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presence and providence, the wisdom and goodness of God, as manifested in the natural and moral world." No doubt Professor Nernst's theorems can be regarded as such illustrations, but he makes no effort to deduce from them any of the attributes of the Deity. Apparently like his distinguished predecessor in mathematical physics, La Place, he "has no need for such a hypothesis." These lectures are devoted to the development of a new theorem of thermodynamics which shall express the real truth at the basis of Berthelot's premature and inaccurate generalization that the heat given off by a chemical reaction is a measure of its chemical energy. Nernst holds that this would be true at absolute zero, and on this hypothesis his calculations of equilibria of gaseous systems agree closely with the experimental results. Most of these results we owe to Nernst and his students, and the description of their novel methods for the determination of the speed of reaction and state of equilibrium form an interesting feature of the book. He used tubes and bottles of iridium, a rare and expensive metal having a higher melting point than even platinum, and in this way was able to make his determinations at a temperature of 2,000 degrees centigrade.

Le Blanc's "Electro-Chemistry" has been for more than ten years a standard authority; and a fresh English translation of the latest German edition, thoroughly revised by the translators and newly illustrated, is welcome. It covers as large a part of its immense field as a single volume can, giving the history, theories, and formulas of the science, but of course not including details of its industrial applications in such manufacturing establishments as we have at Niagara Falls.

In the field of electrical power transmission the mechanic treads on the heels of the advanced mathematician. The scientific chief of one of the principal electrical companies in the United States makes use of the fourth dimension in developing his shop formulas. Alfred Still in his "Polyphase Currents" (The Macmillan Co.) has adopted what he calls "a non-mathematical treatment of the subject" which means that nothing more than algebra, geometry, trigonometry, and vector analysis are used. Like the rest of the series of Whittaker's Handbooks, this is a sound and practical guide to the electrical engineer in a field, which, just now when electrical power is being substituted for steam, demands the most competent men.

Prof. A. E. Kennelly's "Wireless Telegraphy" (Moffatt, Yard & Co.) is written for the larger public, which wants to know something about this new and marvellous thing, which is already touching their lives. The author explains in considerable detail the different kinds of apparatus, and how it works; and he is successful in making clear by abundant diagrams what are the electric waves coming from the antennæ that we see holding their wires high on mast and cape; how they are sent out, and how received.

Prof. W. S. Franklin of Lehigh owes his success as a writer of text books in physics largely to the tight grip he has on both the aim and method of his science. He insists incessantly that physics has no other ultimate object than its practical applications, and he has a great contempt for any other mode of thought than the mathematical formula. His new "Elements of Mechanics" (The Macmillan Co.), in which Barry Macnutt collaborates with him, contains many novel examples as a result of his determined efforts to bring together the abstract and concrete which the average student usually keeps in separate compartments of his brain. Thus we find that in the laundry it is the force $4\pi^2n^2rm$, which wrings the water from the clothes, and that if a batsman will solve the equation $Mxy=K$ he can tell just where to hit the ball so the bat will not sting his hands. The diagrams and sketches used in the book are new and to the point, the problems are numerous, and the discussions logical and concise.

There are no branches of science in which it is more difficult to keep up with the times than manufacturing processes, both on account of their frequent changes and the secrecy that is maintained in regard to improvements. Revised editions of technological books are, therefore, always in order, and, in the case of such standard works as these two, especially welcome. Frank Hall Thorp's "Outlines of Industrial Chemistry" (The Macmillan Company) gives in one volume a comprehensive and clearly written description of all branches of chemical industry. Charles D. Demond contributes a chapter on metallurgy, making a very satisfactory text-book for a general course. Alfred H. Allen's "Commercial Organic Analysis" is the most important work of its kind in English and indispensable in the commercial laboratory. This volume, part 3 of vol. ii., third edition, rewritten and revised by Arnold Rowsby Tankard, deals with aromatic acids, resins, and essential oils. The advance in our knowledge of caoutchouc and essential oils has necessitated a great expansion of the chapters on these subjects. (Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Sons.)

"The Evolution of Matter," by Dr. Gustave Le Bon, translated from the third edition by F. Legge (Charles Scribner's Sons), is the storm-centre of a controversy in which personality, nationality, and standing have contributed heat. On the one side we have scientific men of authority and official position, and on the other a free-lance who dares to speculate and does not mind making blunders. In this crisis in their science professional physicists are treading with caution, guarding their language like diplomats, barely hinting at the startling conclusions toward which their experiments point, while an outsider dashes ahead, shouts out loud the thoughts they had modestly repressed, and then—here is where it hurts—claims credit for priority of discovery. For example, in 1897, Dr. Le Bon announced that radio-activity, which Niepce de Saint-Victor and M. Becquerel had discovered in uranium salts, was a common property of all matter. To this the official physicists reply, if we take M. Campbell of the Cavendish Laboratory at Cambridge as spokesman:

> It was a lucky guess—interesting on that account, but without scientific value, because at the time that it was first made there was no evidence for it, and since the time that it was made Dr. Le Bon has produced no evidence for it.

Dr. Le Bon's "Psychology of Crowds" was favorably received by many critics, but physics is under a stricter régime than sociology, and while this book has sold in France like a novel, the author makes the usual complaint of "a conspiracy of silence" on the part of the recognized authorities. When they have paid any attention to him at all it has been to point out the absurdity of his *lumière noire*, and call him careless in his experiments. Within the last few years many scientists have come to hold similar views to his on the vast stores of energy inside the atom, and the possibility of the transmutation of the elements, but they do not take seriously his main thesis that all matter is decaying, the universe running down like a clock, atoms breaking down into electrons, these being dissipated in etheric waves of heat, light, and electricity, which finally die away, like ripples on a pond, into the nirvana of universal and quiescent ether, from which in some unknown way the material world originally arose.

Five years ago, Campbell's "University Textbook of Botany" (The Macmillan Company) was favorably noticed in our columns, as a useful work quite abreast of the times. A second edition is now before us, bearing the date of 1907, but without the change of a single page number from beginning to end, so far as one can see. Plate corrections are at best very unsatisfactory, because they do not permit the incorporation of new matter to any great extent. Although this edition is stated on the title-page to be "revised and corrected," the additions which would be necessary to bring the subject up to date are not apparent.

"Plant Physiology and Ecology," by Frederic Edward Clements (Henry Holt & Co.), embodies the method of study and general point of view of the author's earlier work, "Research Methods in Ecology," although most of the text is new or rewritten, and the chapter subjects are more numerous. It is intended for use with classes in second-year botany in college and university, and in manuscript form has been successfully used for this purpose for two years. In the treatment, the plant is first considered as an individual, and then is taken up in its relation to the plant group. After a brief discussion of stimulus and response, the relation of the plant to its environment, to water, light, temperature, etc., is taken up in detail. The origin of new forms of plants is presented in the way of a short review of the various theories of evolution; and the five concluding chapters are concerned with plant formations. These are of especial interest and give in clear and not too minute a manner an account of aggregation, migration, competition and ecesis, invasion, succession, alternation, and zonation. The author writes in a peculiarly lucid and interesting way. Ecology is taking a prominent place in modern scientific study and clear explanations of ways and means of research should interest the farmer and forester as well as the university student. The illustrations, which consist of photographs and line cuts, are admirable and almost always pertinent to the adjoining text. It would be fortunate for zoologists if some one would give us a corresponding volume on animal ecology.

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"A Laboratory Manual of Invertebrate Zoölogy," by Dr. Gilman A. Drew, is published by W. B. Saunders Company, Philadelphia. Another laboratory manual added to the scores now in print and gathering dust from lack of use would seem to be an unnecessary duplication, but this book posesses the unusual qualification of originality and great practical value. Dr. Drew prepared it with the aid of the members of the zoölogical staff of the Marine Biological Laboratory at Wood's Hole. The invertebrates are here considered under twelve headings, and detailed directions are given for the study of one or sometimes more forms of each division. Following this, come suggestions and questions in regard to allied forms. For example, under Hydrozoa we are introduced to hydra, obelia, parypha, and gonionemus. The most useful feature of the work is the responsibility thrown upon the pupil. Instead of telling him just what he will find, questions are set with the intention of making him find out for himself. These are often in the form, "Is such or such the case?" leaving the decision with the student, and thus developing whatever ability he may possess in research and independent thinking. If spicules of a known shape are to be sought, we all know how easily many students find them, even on the wrong slide! From a pedagogical point of view, the manual answers all requirements.

"Half Hours with the Mammals," by Charles Frederick Holder (American Book Co.), is a little book intended as a supplementary reader for intermediate grades; it is divided into numerous chapters, averaging eight pages each, giving short outlines of the principal characters of groups of mammals. Not only this, but such subjects as early man, adaptations, games of animals, intelligence, and geographical distribution are treated in the concluding chapters. The sentences are short and much information is condensed into the pages, but, in such brief space, consecutive thought is impossible. The book is fully illustrated.

The much larger second volume of Buchanan's "Manual of Anatomy" (W. T. Keener & Co.) completes the work and fairly fulfils the promise of the first. This part deals with the abdomen, thorax, head, and neck regions, and the topography of these portions of the body is carefully presented. There is a good description of the nervous system and of the eye; that of the ear seems less satisfactory and clear, more particularly in the illustrations, and the section on the larynx is similarly disappointing. Histological matters are nearly everywhere sacrificed to the demands of brevity and practical applications, a method for which a good argument may be made. An appendix gives the essentials of the Bâle nomenclature (not followed in the text), and also contains a glossary which would be still better if the pronunciation were more fully and consistently indicated.

"Physiography," by Prof. Rollin D. Salisbury (Henry Holt & Co.), has been placed in the American Science Series, advanced course, and is intended as a text-book of physical geography for students of early college or normal school grade. It is a ponderous volume of over 750 pages, and 700 illustrations. Physical geography deserves more attention than is usually accorded to it in our schools, as we are constantly meeting new phases of the action and interaction of the elements on land and sea, and a more thorough knowledge of the principles by which they operate would make many a day more pleasant. This physiography is an excellent introduction to the three well-known volumes on geology recently brought out by Professor Salisbury in joint authorship with Prof. Thomas C. Chamberlain. The work outlined is essentially that covered in the University of Chicago in a twelve weeks' course by students who have but recently entered. The field is thoroughly and consistently explored. There are excellent photographs and diagrams on almost every page. The former are from all parts of the world and give visual aid which could be surpassed only by actual field work.

"A First Course in Algebra," by Albert H. Wheeler (Little, Brown & Co.), is a voluminous book of 660 pages. It contains a very complete development of algebra from arithmetic. The fact that fifty-seven pages are devoted to the application of algebraic laws to numbers, as a preparation for the use of literal expressions, indicates the thoroughness with which the subject is treated. The book contains not only a maximum of theory, but a maximum of practical exercises as well—there being 8,189 examples. The applied problems are particularly good. They cover a much broader field than the usual algebraic problems, and many of them deal with subjects of practical interest, including the laws of physical science. A unique and interesting feature of the work is the large number of problems for mental solution. The chief objection to the book, from the point of view of the teacher, is that it is too bulky.

"Anglice Reddenda," vol. i., Latin Extracts for Unseen Translation; vol. ii., Greek Extracts for Unseen Translation, selected by C. S. Jerram (Henry Frowde), is a new edition in different form of material previously published. In the earlier form, vol. i. contained easy selections in both Greek and Latin; vol. ii. more difficult selections. In this edition the division is according to language, not difficulty. In both volumes, the selections vary from extremely easy and brief anecdotes, fables, and the like, to difficult passages in prose and poetry. In the Latin for his early selections the editor rarely goes beyond the authors read in schools, while later he culls the whole Latin literature from Plautus to Suetonius. Similarly in the early Greek selections, Æsop and Xenophon are the most prominent names, although there are occasional extracts from Herodotus, Euripides, and Homer. Later the range is much extended both in period and dialect. There are also some fifty-six passages from the New Testament, which not merely add interest, but also show quite effectively the peculiarities of that style of Greek. The selections have been made with great care, as is to be expected from a scholar like Mr. Jerram. This book, together with a similar collection by Bendall and Lawrence, published by the Cambridge Press, as well as books of the same order edited by Professors White, Tomlinson and Post in this country, are evidences of a general feeling that much more time should be devoted to sight translation than is customary. But the question may reasonably arise, whether, what is confessedly desirable, and in some degree is actually practised, is not after all the all-important aim of classical teaching. The dependence upon a lexicon by students is admitted to be the great obstacle in the acquisition of fluency in reading. It is therefore a matter of serious doubt, whether books like this, good though they all are, do not tend merely to palliate the evil rather than to remove it.

"A Beginners' Book in Latin," by D. S. Muzzey (Longmans, Green & Co.), is "quite frankly an introduction to Cæsar." In this claim, which the author makes with a certain pride, it is not different from most of the beginners' books that have appeared in recent years, but it is different in that the author feels that the limit has been reached in condensing such books, and that it is time rather to enlarge. The first part is devoted to the study of inflections only, with no reading exercises either in Latin or English. The habit, so familiar from the vogue of certain text-books, of giving the inflections in scraps and fragments, is abandoned, and the declensions are presented together, and likewise the conjugations, and the rest. The desire not to separate similars has led at times to extreme treatment, as when Mr. Muzzey gives in one chapter the first, second, fourth, and fifth declensions. The second part is devoted to syntax. Reading lessons, both in Latin and English, appear in every chapter. These are regularly complete Cæsarian sentences from the earlier part of the Gallic War; no connected sections being inserted until the third part. In the third part we find some valuable instruction in regard to the best methods of translating, the differences between English and Latin idiom—together with a number of passages from the Gallic War, to be worked out as exercises according to the directions given. Many critics will object strongly to the postponement of all subjunctive constructions to be treated as the last thing under syntax. Some of these are quite simple, and there seems no adequate reason for leaving them till the end. Many other critics will object to the total omission of reading exercises from the first twenty-five chapters. This far outdoes Mr. Bennett, who would omit only English into Latin at this period. The author is evidently abreast of recent syntactical discussion; but he is not always happy in his explanations; as his treatment of the subjunctive shows, where certainly the doubtful term "anticipatory" should not appear in such a text-book. A few errors of fact have crept in; there are occasionally lapses in the proofreading, but these are surprisingly few. Altogether the book seems to be the work of a doctrinaire rather than of a practical teacher, but it is well and consistently thought out and is a genuine contribution to its class.

Plautus's "Mostellaria," edited by E. A. Sonnenschein, has been issued in a second edition by Henry Frowde. The "Mostellaria" is one of the best of the plays of Plautus, in plot, in characters, and in style, and it is remarkable that it has been so little edited, as compared with

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others like the "Captivi" or "Menæchmi." But apart from the edition by Fay, the play does not seem to have appealed to recent editors, and the present edition follows its first only after an interval of twenty years. During that period the knowledge, both of the text and language of Plautus, has advanced by leaps and bounds, and no Latin author has figured as prominently in the studies of classical students. Professor Sonnenschein has himself been an active student of Plautus, and as a result the present edition has little but the name in common with the first. The text may be said to be based upon the *editio minor* of Goetz and Schoell, but it is in reality the editor's own, for he holds with justice that while all recent study tends to support the manuscript tradition, yet in the manifestly corrupt passages a good emendation, even though it is not certain, is better for a practical edition for students than an unchanged text. Accordingly a number of emendations have been introduced, many of them the editor's own, to make the text readable throughout. In the text as in the commentary the editor seems to have taken account of the most important periodical literature; of editions he has consulted those of Ussing, Leo, Lindsay, and the commentary of Lorenz. It is little short of remarkable that he seems not to know the recent edition of Fay—the most independent and interesting edition of a Plautine play in recent years; at any rate he never refers to it, although he seems to know the various papers of the same scholar. The commentary is unusually full, and is embellished by numerous parallels from English, which are genuine parallels; for Professor Sonnenschein has made extensive studies on the influence exerted by Plautus upon English literature, the fruits of which he promises to set forth at a later day. The treatment of the language and syntax of Plautus and of early Latin in general is very complete, as is also the discussion of metrical questions. In this latter matter, he is, however, inclined to great conservatism. It may be said in general that this like other recent editions of individual plays is overloaded with details as to linguistic usage. The criticism and elucidation of the play as literature are thus thrown into the background, and the book becomes not one for the lover of Latin, but one for the student only. A "gentleman's" edition of a play of Plautus would be a boon to men of scholarly tastes, but that seems at present too much to hope for.

Prof. J. R. S. Sterrett's edition of the first three books of Homer's Iliad (American Book Company) is provided with the usual helps to the student, in the form of a chapter on the dialect of Homer (pp. 53), notes (pp. 161), and vocabulary (pp. 161). By far the most interesting part of the book is the text and the chapter on the dialect. Professor Sterrett has been far bolder than any other English-speaking editor of the Homeric poems. He has based his text on that published by Van Leeuwen and Mendes da Costa in 1885, and his chapter on the dialect in large part on Van Leeuwen's "Enchiridium Dictionis Epicæ" (1892). He expresses himself as convinced that the changes made in the text by these scholars "have great pedagogical value; they simplify the language and make Homer much easier and more delightful reading for the beginner, to whom many things in the traditional text present unnecessary difficulties." He, therefore, writes the digamma in his text and notes wherever considerations of metre, syntax, and the like seem to him to give evidence of its presence. In this he seems in general justified. But he goes much further. He restores the augment, both syllabic and temporal, and uses the sign for aphæresis where the syllabic augment cannot be restored. He writes also the uncontracted inflectional forms, especially in place of certain verb forms found in the traditional text that are difficult of explanation. Professor Sterrett has thus produced a text that will appeal to many, especially in this day in which every effort is being made to coddle the American student, and to make smooth his path. One cannot, however, help wishing that he had sought to justify his text on other grounds than by insisting on its pedagogical value. The main question is not what is easiest for the student, but rather how far such forms as Professor Sterrett has accepted are justified on scientific and philological grounds, and how much weight is to be attached to the text tradition. The chapter on the dialect of Homer contains much valuable matter; Professor Sterrett has made this so full that he dispenses wholly with references to Greek grammars. The commentary is full and good. There are many fresh and original notes; the editor's travels in Asia Minor and his familiarity with the Troad, "where," as he says, "customs die hard, and, in point of fact, outlive empires, religions, and languages," have helped him here. The vocabulary is elaborate; much attention is given to etymology. There is also a map of Homeric Greece.

"Homeric Vocabulary," Greek and English word-lists for the study of Homer, by W. B. Owen and E. J. Goodspeed, is issued by the University of Chicago Press. The conviction has been spreading recently among teachers of classics that the chief obstacle to acquiring the ability to read Greek and Latin has been the failure of our present method of instruction to provide any systematic training in vocabulary. This book is the outcome of such a conviction and gives all the words that occur in Homer ten times or more, arranged in groups according to the inflectional categories, verb, noun, pronoun, etc. These groups are subdivided according to the number of occurrences thus: 500-2,000 times, 200-500 times, 100-200 times, etc. A similar list of the English equivalents forms the second part of the volume. The totals of the various groups are interesting. Of verbs, the total number occurring 10 times or more is 526; of nouns, 572; of other words, 725. Grand total, 1,823. When the extent of the Iliad and Odyssey is taken into consideration, nearly 30,000 lines, or thrice the size of Virgil's Æneid, the comparatively narrow range of the vocabulary of frequent words is as striking as is the same phenomenon in Latin. This book is, however, open to certain criticism from teachers of Homer, because there is no indication as to the best means of employing the material, beyond the remark in the prefatory note, "a moderate number of words learned each day and constantly reviewed will rapidly enlarge the students' working vocabulary and steadily better his equipment for sight reading." But any teacher knows that a "moderate number of words" cannot be learned each day just as "words." They must be useful in the every-day work, and the words learned should come from the reading lesson assigned. To make a student learn words which he may not meet at all is foolish. There should, accordingly, be some indication of the order in which these words occur in the Homeric narrative, as well as their relative value.

CURRENT FICTION.

The Helpmate. By May Sinclair. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

At last analysis, Miss Sinclair's new book fines down to a presentation of that ever fresh and insoluble problem, whether the greater harm be done by transgressors who make sin seem tolerable, or by saints who render virtue odious. The form in which she stages her question is the adjustment of the marriage relation between an average man of unusual sweetness and no great force, and a wife whose heights of personal purity are only rivalled by her depth of physiological ignorance.

Anne Majendie's world rocks to its foundations when she learns that, seven years before he knew her, her husband had been trapped into a liaison with an older married woman. Thereafter Anne's behavior is strictly modelled upon that of the Lady Rowena. Anne forgives "as a Christian," which, as Wamba truly remarked, means "that she does not forgive him at all." And as for forgetting! After the first recoil, in which she proposes leaving him, she settles down comfortably to a permanent mission of putting him through a life-long course of active penitence. Miss Sinclair has confined her problem to its one essential element, by clearing the husband of all deceit. He had reason to suppose Anne exactly informed, before her marriage. Consequently, when she decides to be a good wife to him in spite of everything, the poor man naturally regards himself as excused, and prepares to take up their existence where they left it before the storm. Not so Anne! If that were all, where would be her crown of martyrdom? In her eyes Walter Majendie is a moral leper, hopelessly tainted, to be watched, protected, taken into improving company, but never permitted to feel himself free to walk about the world like other people. She is outraged by his constant tendency to take life easily, to enjoy himself, to make love to her. She finds his attitude perfectly unsuitable to the perpetual expiation to which she condemns him. He, being sweet-tempered and much in love, puts up with her, hoping for a term to his purgatory. Her dignity is unshaken by any of the details of common life. She can be tragically consistent through a bilious attack, accept his ministrations unrelentingly, and remain an injured goddess with a sick headache!

Naturally, when the baby comes, she grows even more rigorous. A stain upon her husband was bad enough, but the blot upon Peggy's father seems bigger and blacker every time she thinks of it, and she never thinks of Walter without it. Step by step Miss Sinclair follows the downward path along which poor Walter is hounded. Those two figures dominate the canvas; the man

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weak, chivalrously submissive, unable to credit the extent of his bad fortune—the woman conscientious, high-minded, invincibly ignorant. In the background two opposing groups champion the two contestants. There is a pretentious circle of provincial *précieuses*, and set of common, pleasure-seeking, commercial people, Walter's business friends, upon whom he falls back in default of all human treatment at home. These figures are sufficiently well defined, and their contrasted talk often lightens the somewhat serious pages with a gleam of welcome humor, but they play a minor rôle.

The substance of the book is that question which recurs again and again in life and in fiction: What should a wife do? In view of the fact that in the last two decades so many tendency novels have stormed and cried aloud on the subject of Women's Rights, it is perhaps an interesting sign of the times that so clear and discriminating a voice as Miss Sinclair's should now be heard, quietly and temperately asking a few discreet questions about Husbands' Wrongs!

Temptation. By Richard Bagot. New York: The Macmillan Co.

Modern Italy continues to furnish a setting for the English romancer. As a rule, the attempt seems to be to show that the Italians, though inevitably suffering from the fact of their foreign birth, are remarkably like real people. Exotic atmosphere and color serve to decorate the otherwise familiar scene; Maria sounds so different with the thinner vowel. Mr. Bagot's theme, however, could hardly be put into terms of English living, so much of it depends upon the background of tradition, and of recognizedly Italian tradition. In England or America there is little of romance in the not altogether unknown procedure of placing rough-on-rats in one's husband's coffee. The fact of murder may be sufficiently deplorable, and the means chosen perfectly effective; but the chances are there is no glamour about the affair. In Italy, at least in the Italy of Mr. Bagot, the situation is very different. His Countess poisons her husband according to the best traditions of the husband's family. One of his forbears had been a Donna Giulia Maidalchini, a sister-in-law of Pope Innocent X. Perhaps the most distinguished act of her career was the poisoning of her brother-in-law, who was also her lover. Appropriately enough, a picture of her is hung prominently in the family gallery. The present Count has married beneath him—the daughter of a merchant, with some education, but with the blood and nature of a *contadina*. The husband has the tastes of the country gentleman, the *campagnuolo* of birth and essential refinement. He is, withal, a little dull, fails to perceive the growing weariness with which his wife, a beautiful woman in the grip of a rather vulgar ambition to shine in the world, regards their common quiet life. He fancies that she regrets her lack of children, which is by no means true.

Enter the third person, a cousin of the Count, a dabbler in the positivist philosophy, opinionated, shallow, but by no means bad. The woman is pretty bad, but the passion which she presently conceives for the new-comer is true, though ignoble. The story and the picture of Donna Giulia, which have always fascinated her, gradually acquire ascendency over her imagination, and when fate puts opportunity in her way, she is quick to take advantage of it. The lover repudiates her and she shoots herself; the facts are bald enough, but they are interpreted with much skill.

Brunhilde's Paying Guest. By Caroline Fuller. New York: The Century Co.

"Brunhilde's Paying Guest" should be under the elbow of every hotel porch dweller in the resort so thinly disguised as Wistaria-in-the-Pines. Where last winter they enjoyed their picnics under the auspices of "Lady Baltimore," this year they can put themselves under a fresh guide. Beyond touching some of the same geographical points, the present story, however, has nothing in common with Mr. Wister's study of South Carolina. Although internal evidence indicates a Northern origin, the work is apparently modelled upon the most conventional type of Southern novel. The young ladies cook and flirt and jilt and make their own dresses. The gentlewoman, who keeps the boarding-house, is cut to the quick on hearing herself referred to as "the landlady." And when John Holly (her Northern paying guest) remarks: "Your garden must be beautiful in the spring," she hospitably answers: "I'm afraid it won't seem so any more when there are a lot of strangers in it."

True to that passion for being snubbed which distinguishes heroes in fiction from the young men one meets, John is so taken with this graciousness that he falls quite distressingly in love with Brunhilde. His attachment is only intensified by the discovery that she (when at the age of eight) rescued his mother from particular straits, in this very pineland, on the night of his birth! There is a surprising bit of melodrama concerning a Whirling Lady, whose disagreeable trick of leading the Holly men astray on stormy nights caused John's father to leave their ancestral Carolina home. The Lady has a try at John himself, but Brunhilde worsts her, and the story ends with three sets of wedding bells.

The descriptions of the tall trees, the festooning wistaria, the dreamy, moss-draped gardens are charming enough to evoke pleasant visions of the misty, fragrant pinelands. The negro talk is admirable, and the dialogues between the young folk abound in "go." Unfortunately, the author seems to have chosen a set of people who hardly represent the standard of elegant breeding upon which Carolinians plume themselves. Consequently, while her conversations are occasionally "bright," they invariably sound rather like the badinage overheard in trolley cars. When John greets the doctor with, "Good old Pills. . . . I've been pining for a dose of you. Come around and have a wash," he certainly suggests the drummer rather than the Harvard bred, rising New York journalist. But when Dolly says to Levis: "Some of the town girls said I hadn't a new beau this year, so I want to show them," and her cousin answers, "H'm! You care a heap about him! And if you talk any more about Miles and me," and so on, the two lovely young ladies' maiden confidences certainly seem to echo the kitchen rather than the parlor.

PLACES AND PEOPLE.

Gegenden und Menschen. Von George Brandes. Munich: Albert Langen.

The Danish critic who has become a great interpreter of the world's modern literature is also an interpreter of places and people. Seen through his temperament, the countries which he has visited in his zigzag rambles throughout Europe are invested with a new charm. For he is not content with drifting on the surface of foreign life. His method of travelling is very much like his method of reading: he sinks his individuality for the time being in that of the nation he studies; when he recovers his own ego, it is saturated with the foreign element. He understands and makes others understand; nor is he satisfied with substitutes:

> There is a great difference between the tea which the Chinese drink and that which goes under that name elsewhere. If you like it, you will try to drink it in China, and have it served by a native.

There are many passages like this in his latest work. With most of us notions of foreign peoples are much like our notion of Chinese tea. We never get the real thing, and if we did, we should not recognize it. We need interpreters of such human sympathy and catholic latitude to point out to us what is essential.

Though the literary possibilities in the scene before him are usually those that hold his attention longest, they do not monopolize it. As convalescent after typhoid, he boarded in Rome with a middle-class family, and he speaks of his hostess Maria and her niece Filomena like a novelist studying types for future use. He discerns wherein they differ from the conventional Italian woman of literature, and calls both the Roman woman of Goethe's elegies and the Graziella of Lamartine artificial. He is as much pleased with the unsophisticated naïveté of Filomena, who sings to him her *canzone d'amore*, as with the primitive rationalism of Maria, who resents the idea of divine interference with a philosophical *Anche la natura è una piccola cosa.* But the charm of his Italian chapters lies mainly in the delightfully human relations between the foreigner and the natives. These chapters contain, however, descriptive passages which prove him a great artist. No more vivid picture of the Roman carnival has been presented than that which he has sketched in his diary. Admirable for its impressive vitality is his account of the Papal mass at St. Peter's; its waves of color and of innumerable voices, swelling and subsiding like the surf, suggest the powerful canvas by Liebermann in last year's exhibit of the Berlin Secession. Associations of ideas tempt him into far-off excursions. Sicily with its fragrance of flowering lemon and orange trees is to him the kingdom "Apfelsinia," which Solness had promised Hilde. In Scylla and Charybdis he sees an eternal symbol of the maelstroms of life. One chapter is devoted to Annie Vivanti, whose poems a Sicilian admirer had lent to him. Fascinated with the personality they reflect, Brandes limns her portrait and translates many of the poems into German.

Brandes devotes more space in his book to Russia than to any other country; for

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he is attracted by its extremely puzzling problems. He probes into economic conditions, traces social developments, studies racial elements, religious tendencies, political aspects—everything that throws light upon the character of the people, their intellectual life, their literature, and art. He notes that the Russian's sense of reality gave that country realism long before it appeared in France. He credits Russian society with a generous breadth of view—*une large franchise*—"so different from English stiffness, French caution, German arrogance of rank, and Danish drivel." The contrast between the "intelligence" of Russia, with its heretical attitude towards traditional morality, and the ignorant multitude bowing to official authority—the very type of ignorance and superstition—is appalling to him. "The two fundamental forces diverge and drive to opposite extremes. Whither do they lead? Can anybody compute the parallelogram of forces, the resulting direction and the speed?" A passage in Gogol's "Dead Souls" occurs to him, Tschitschikow's *kibitka* disappearing in the distance:

> And are not you, too, Russia, speeding along like a Troika that cannot be overtaken? . . . Russia, whither speedest thou? Answer. But no answer comes. You hear the weird sound of the harness bells; the air sighs, and a storm blows up. But Russia continues her mad drive, and the other nations and empires of the earth timidly step aside and do not hinder her course.

He finds among the eminent men of Russia many instances of innate originality perverted and suppressed by the tyrannical Government. One of his most interesting portraits is that of Prince Kropotkin, whom the author regards as "a revolutionist without pathos, without emblems, who laughs at the theatrical accessories of revolution, such as vows, ceremonies, and conspiracies." But, as a mere study of character, his sketch of Katkow, the renegade and traitor, the editor with more power than the Government itself, is the most admirable achievement.

Wherever he goes, he seeks the essential and enduring traits of every nationality; its official character does not concern him. France, of which he had given us some impressions in a previous volume, "Gestalten und Gedanken," receives a large share of his attention. In Paris the very stones seem to express national traits: those of the Roman *Thermæ* under the Hôtel Cluny the surviving pagan spirit; those of Notre Dame, the Gothic. But the Voltaire of Houdon in the Theatre Français is the most characteristic of all. "Only a people who are their own master, a nation with large views, not one of petty calculation, could set up this statue in this place." Brandes enumerates Voltaire's heresies in regard to some ideals of his country: la Pucelle, the Church, patriotism. "And yet he is enthroned here! Think of Byron's memory being thus honored in England, or Heine's in Germany." In this honor to Voltaire is embodied everything that France means for people of broad modern culture. Most suggestive are the parallels Brandes draws between the art and the literature of modern France; he traces the relation between Courbet and Sue; Manet and Zola; Monet and the later impressionists, and the Concourts and Maupassant; Rops and Gustave Moreau, and Baudelaire; Barbey d'Aurevilly and Villiers de l'Isle Adam. He calls the French the most artistic nation of the nineteenth century; the visible and the spiritual expressions of their national life are more closely allied than in any other.

On his arrival in England, he is at first startled by a Londoner's praise of his city, but a drive along Kensington Gardens on an autumn evening brings home to him its attraction. He understands the charm of Whistler's Nocturnes, the charm of mist-veiled outlines, not distinct and tangible, but refined, picturesque, indefinable. And again on a sunlit Sunday morning, when he looks up and down the Thames from Westminster Bridge, and is arrested by the imposing sight of the Parliament building, he is impressed with the beauty of London, its expression of British massiveness. "A country is easily identified in our mind with some representative personality." In his youth, England was to him the land of John Stuart Mill, later of Shelley, and finally of Shakespeare—a remarkable sequence. He sees much of Dr. Garnett and Edmund Gosse; Mr. Heinemann is his host. The chapter contains some interesting opinions on contemporary English poets. The theatre attracts him. He is shocked with the popularity of "Trilby" (this was in the year 1896), delighted with Mrs. Patrick Campbell's Juliet, and more than pleased with "The Benefit of the Doubt." Though Mr. Pinero has often stopped short of producing a real masterpiece, Brandes does not give up the hope that we may yet see one from his pen. In the home of Douglas Sladen he has a most amusing conversation with the Marquis Tseng. "Essentially life is the same everywhere," says the Chinese nobleman, "in Peking as in London, in Berlin as in Paris. . . Take religion, for instance. Here the plain people are Christians: heaven is for the righteous, hell for the bad, etc. The educated have no religion at all. With us the plain people are Buddhists: heaven is for the good, hell for the bad, etc. The educated have no religion, you see, just as in Berlin, in Paris, and in London."

It is impossible to give a just idea of the wealth of his observations, the wisdom of his reflections. Nor can a review convey the charm of dignity and modesty which characterizes the work. The author says in one place:

> How difficult it is to understand a nature, a people, a country, a city. How easy it seemed in former days, say sixty years ago. . . . We see so much more to-day, so many more groups and details, and we are so much more afraid to generalize hastily.

If the average tourist doing Europe in three months, and our foreign visitors who rush on the limited express from Wall Street to Niagara Falls, then to the White House and to the stock yards of Chicago, and back to catch the next steamer, were equally timid about offering their generalizations, what a different world this would be! Here is a man of the broadest culture, who knows the flower of each nation's intelligence, who has lived among all these peoples, eaten their food, made merry at their feasts and mourned with them in their sorrows, and this man is afraid to generalize. What a lesson in international ethics!

The Gospel of Barnabas. Edited and translated from the Italian MS. in the Imperial Library at Vienna by Lonsdale and Laura Ragg. Oxford: The Clarendon Press. 16s. net.

Hegemonius Acta Archelai. Herausgegeben in Auftrage der Kirchenväter-Commission der Königl. Preussischen Akademie der Wissenschaften von Charles Henry Beeson. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs' sche Buchhandlung. 6m.

To Barnabas has been ascribed not only the canonical Epistle to the Hebrews, the Epistle of Barnabas, and the Acts of Barnabas, all of which are extant, but also a gospel, the title of which, Gospel of Barnabas, is mentioned in a catalogue of sixty canonical books and in the so-called Gelasian Decree. Harnack, in his "History of Early Christian Literature" (1893, pp. 18, 62), says that no single fragment of this gospel survives, while Hennecke, in his excellent "Introduction to the Apocrypha of the New Testament" (1904, p. 205), doubts whether such a gospel existed. Two sayings attributed to Barnabas, not found in the Epistle, have long been known, one from a manuscript in the Bodleian (Cod. Bodl. Barocc., 39), which is worth quoting: "In evil contests the victor is more wretched [sc. than the vanquished], for he departs from them bearing the greater sin"; the other from Gregory of Nazianzus, which need not be quoted. Both sayings may be found in Resch's Agrapha, 2d ed., 1906, pp. 282-3. In addition to this, it has been known that J. F. Cramer, in the early eighteenth century, had acquired an Italian manuscript with the title: "True Gospel of Jesus, called Christ, a new prophet sent by God to the world: according to the description of Barnabas his apostle"; and that he had presented the same, with a suitable dedication, to Prince Eugène of Savoy; and that the manuscript in 1738 found its way into the Hofbibliothek at Vienna, where it now rests. Meanwhile, John Toland had seen the manuscript, and, in his "Nazarenus" (1718) and in a later work, posthumously published (1747), had printed extracts. Braunsberger, in his monograph "Der Apostel Barnabas" (1876, pp. 15-16), on the basis of Toland's excerpts and Cramer's dedication, concluded that the Italian gospel is not the original Gospel of Barnabas, but a translation of an Arabic, and that, too, Mohammedan, Gospel of Barnabas, a view shared by Hennecke following Axon (*Journal of Theological Studies*, 1902, pp. 441-451).

In the volume before us, exquisitely printed by the Clarendon Press, the Prebendary of Lincoln and his wife have presented the *editio princeps* of that Gospel of Barnabas whose full title was given above. An Introduction of eighty-odd pages dealing solely with primary sources is followed by the Italian text with a delightful English translation facing it page by page. At the close there is an index of the subject-matter of the gospel and an index of citations from the Christian Scriptures, from the Vulgate of the same, and from the Koran.

According to Mr. Ragg, the gospel was written by a renegade Christian of the fourteenth or fifteenth century, who, in addition to canonical and apocryphal gospels, and Jewish and Mohammedan material, used perhaps in a Latin version the original

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Gospel of Barnabas. The present manuscript is a "rather careless sixteenth century copy, made by a Venetian scribe, of an earlier and apparently Tuscan document." As to the widespread belief that the gospel was once in Arabic, the editors say that this opinion is due to a conjecture of Cramer in his dedication to the Prince of Savoy, and is unsupported either by external or internal evidence. Their view is sustained in a note contributed by Professor Margoliouth, who maintains that "any knowledge which the Indian Moslems may possess of the Gospel of Barnabas is due probably, if not certainly, "to Sale's Koran," and that the Arabic glosses to the Italian gospel could not have been "composed by any one whose native language was a form of Arabic." As to the relation of this Gospel of the original Gospel of Barnabas, the editors express themselves with commendable hesitation. They are inclined, however, to find in certain details of angelology and eschatology, in some of the miracles and parables, in the suppression of the Baptist, in the prominence of Pilate, Herod, and Caiaphas, in the substitution of Barnabas for Thomas or Simon Zelotes in the list of the Twelve, in the account of the birth of Jesus stated to have been *senza dollore,* and in the curiously docetic rendering of the passion narrative in which Judas takes the place of Jesus, suggestions at least that the original gnostic Gospel of Barnabas was used as a contributory source (Introd., pp. xlvi., ff.), a conclusion affirmed two years ago by Mr. Ragg in the *Journal of Theological Studies* (1905, pp. 424-433). It remains to be seen whether or not a more extended examination of the Italian gospel will confirm the opinion expressed by the present editors as to its relation to the gnostic Barnabas. It is to be observed in passing that neither of the two utterances of Barnabas alluded to above appears in the Italian version. In the meanwhile, it is to be hoped that the Spanish version of this mediæval gospel may be rediscovered.

Finally, it is to be said that the gospel is interesting reading not only because of its doctrines as, for example, the view that Paul wrongfully teaches that Jesus is the Son of God, that Jesus disclaimed Messiahship, that Mohammed is Messiah, not only because of the restraint manifested in the story of the Virgin birth, but also because of the positive beauty of some of its sayings and parables.

Passing to "Hegemonius," the sixteenth volume in the well-known series of the Greek Christian writers of the first three centuries published under the auspices of the Prussian Academy of Sciences, we find ourselves in possession of the definitive text of the main source of almost all the western accounts of Manicheism. The editor, it is pleasant to note, is an American, an instructor in Latin, if we mistake not, in the University of Chicago. Dr. Beeson holds that the author is Hegemonius, the date the first half of the fourth century, and the original language not Syriac, but Greek. The work has come down in a complete form only in a Latin version, the first edition of which was published by Zacagni in 1698. More recent editions have added little of moment to that of Zacagni; though some of Routh's conjectures have been sustained by recently discovered manuscript authority. Dr. Beeson, besides commanding all other available manuscripts, has had the advantage of using a recently discovered twelfth century manuscript now in the possession of Professor Traube, which contains the entire Latin text. The paragraphing in this edition is new, but Zacagni's chapter divisions are retained in brackets. With the Latin text are given also the Greek excerpts from Epiphanius. The careful indices are the work of Mrs. Beeson, who likewise has been connected with the Latin Department of Chicago University.

To Colonise England: A Plea for a Policy. By C. F. G. Masterman, M.P., W. B. Hodgson, and Others. Pp. xxiii., 211. New York: A. Wessels Co.

One of the most influential of the many causes which contributed to the defeat of the Conservatives and the election of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman's immense majority to the House of Commons in January, 1906, was the urgent need of land reform in rural England. The vast holdings of the great landlords and the landlessness of the huge majority of Englishmen have been matters of comment for so long as to have lost interest for all but those concerned. But for the farmers' sons who can get no opportunity of establishing themselves on farms of their own when they leave their father's roof, and for the agricultural laborers who "follow the plough to the workhouse door," the subject never loses interest, and ever since the Reform Act of 1884 conferred the Parliamentary vote on the agricultural laborer, his one aim and hope has been access to the land. Mr. Masterman, literary editor of the London *Daily News,* in his contribution to "To Colonise England," corroborates the judgment of Herbert Paul in his recent volume of "Modern England," that it was Mr. Gladstone's failure to fulfil the expectations of the rural laborers, even more than his conversion to Home Rule, that invited the rout of 1886. In 1892 the Liberal Unionists made a bid for the rural vote by the Small Holdings Act—an act so hedged about with difficulties that after fifteen years only nine County Councils had availed themselves of the powers it conferred upon them. From 1895 to 1905 the paralysis of Tory rule deadened all hope of land reform; but with the general election of 1906 the rural laborer and the land reformer awoke; and all eyes are now turned on the Campbell-Bannerman Government for an assuagement of the land hunger of England's rural population.

"To Colonise England" is only one of a number of books that the present crisis has called out. About a year ago, Jesse Collings—the veteran land-reformer, whose phrase "Three Acres and a Cow," incorporated in Mr. Chamberlain's unauthorized programme of 1885, first aroused the hopes of the agricultural laborer—published his portly volume on land reform; and one of the most noteworthy of more recent books is Miss Jebb's painstaking review of the small holdings of England. The aim of the authors of "To Colonise England" is to strengthen the hands of the Liberal Government in the pending land legislation; to prevent the calamity that would overtake the cause of reform, if the Government, in an effort to propitiate the Whig members of the Cabinet and the House of Lords, should pass legislation of a character that would wholly fail to fulfil the reasonable expectations of the rural voters. In concluding his contribution to the symposium which forms Part III. of the volume, F. N. Rogers, M.P., gives forcible expression to this apprehension:

It will be something of a tragedy in the history of the Liberal party, and a disappointment past expression to its most earnest supporters, if this present opportunity be not used to the full to realize our desires. We want a Land Bill, and we want it, as Hilda Wangel says, on the table.

The papers which are republished in "To Colonise England," appeared serially in the London *Daily News.* The first part of the volume, following an Introduction by A. G. Gardiner, the editor of the *Daily News,* consists of a series of sketches by the late W. B. Hodgson, under the title of "The Disease." Mr. Hodgson graphically describes the loneliness of rural England; the waste of its fertile lands given up to rough pasture, wide hedges, and coppices carefully preserved for the sake of the game, while cottages fall in ruins, and small farms are swept out of existence. "Back to the land" is a favorite cry with philanthropists, aghast at the overcrowding, and the unsanitary conditions in the slums of great cities; but if back to the land means a return to a wage of three dollars a week, out of which fifty cents must be paid for the rent of a miserable hovel, one may well echo Mr. Hodgson's expression of wonder, not that men do not go back to the land, but that anyone remains on it.

The second section by C. F. G. Masterman has a literary value that should give its author high rank among modern essayists. Much of it is occupied with details of schemes which offer a remedy for the creeping paralysis of English rural life. Details concerning rents, labor, cattle, and pigs do not well lend themselves to pictusesque writing, but Mr. Masterman has the eye of an artist for the beauty of English scenery, and even the most prosaic facts are made interesting under the transmuting touch of his pen. The results of the work of the various associations, and of the nine county councils, which have put the Small Holdings Act of 1892 into operation, Mr. Masterman sums up in a brief paragraph:

I have seen the small holdings created by the energy of the villagers in the heart of the Wiltshire Downs; created by a County Council in Worcestershire and in Norfolk; created by a Parish Council under the Malvern Hills, and by another on the borders of Birmingham; created on the lands in Lincolnshire by our present Minister of Agriculture (Lord Carrington). I have seen them on poor land and on good, near and remote from markets, buying their land or hiring it, building their houses, or buying the houses built for them. I have found a life of variable hardness and austerity; many requirements, some discontent. But in all I have found rents regularly paid; a rise instead of a fall in the population of the parish; pauperism diminished; and a spirit abroad of independence and of enterprise which one can seek for in vain in the sleek, comfortable model villages of Feudal England.

The third part of the volume consists of contributions on the land question from thirteen Liberal members of Parliament. This is the least valuable and least interesting part of the book. Naturally there

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is much repetition; and the essays are each too short to be other than commonplace. In Part IV., Mr. Masterman summarizes the official testimony issued by the Board of Agriculture and the decline in the agricultural population of Great Britain, and on small holdings and rural housing. The number of holdings in England and Wales of from one to fifty acres is given at 278,926, of which one-third are from one to five acres. The legislation of 1892 added 652½ acres to the extent of the small holdings—just one square mile out of the 60,000 in England and Wales to satisfy the cravings of the 689,292 landless agricultural laborers, who were enumerated in the census of 1901.

America's Insular Possessions. By C. H. Forbes-Lindsay. 2 vols. Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Co. $5.

There can be no doubt of the author's sincerity in bringing out these two well-printed and well-bound volumes. He has produced a brief and interesting review of the history of our island possessions; has described them and their inhabitants with accuracy and sympathy; and has loyally sought to make the best possible showing for their administration under American rule. With the historical and descriptive part, which does not pretend to complete thoroughness, there is little fault to find. Sub-heads and photographic illustrations abound; and a good index makes the matter accessible. Thus the work, as a cursory account of Porto Rico, Guam, the Philippines, etc., is both useful and readable. But even in this popular treatise one could wish for more frequent references to the authorities on whom Mr. Forbes-Lindsay relies, and the lack of a map of the Philippines is inexcusable.

The entire second volume is devoted to the Philippines—a space which their importance abundantly justifies. It is in this quarter that the United States has committed the grave strategic error of establishing an outpost seven thousand miles from the principal base; and has assumed the heavy obligation of administering the affairs of a strange diversity of alien peoples. If we can succeed here, we can surely succeed nearer home and on a narrower field. In support of our policy towards the Philippines the author quotes the words of Mr. Taft, wherein that admirable official and sincere friend of the natives pleads for letting well enough alone. Could Philippine affairs lie in these honest and capable hands for the one or more generations which Mr. Taft thinks necessary, the islands would doubtless prosper materially and their inhabitants enjoy a peaceful and kindly rule with a minimum of discontent arising from vain aspirations for self government. Unfortunately, the legislative fair-dealing which Mr. Taft so earnestly besought Congress to grant has been denied his wards with an indifference which appears both studied and brutal. If such a man as he has failed to break down the tariff wall which shuts the Filipinos out from the best market for their sugar and tobacco, or to secure the passage of other remedial measures, or to overcome the Chauvinistic contempt for the natives which so many American immigrants seem to cherish as a badge of their manhood; what hope does the future hold for this people? To Mr. Taft's influence and life an end must come some day, and when either disappears from the scene, to whom can the Filipinos look for a successor? It is impossible to ignore the fact that Mr. Taft's results are based on a person and not on a principle—exit the former, what remains? A negation of the fundamental idea from which our own civilization springs.

The absence from these pages of a careful discussion of such topics is much to be regretted. Many thoughtful readers would have welcomed a dispassionate array of the arguments on both sides. So far as the book is concerned, they must content themselves with the concluding chapter made up of extracts from Mr. Taft's addresses, which, however frank and honest, are necessarily *ex parte*. Against the cheery optimism of Mr. Forbes-Lindsay and his school, it seems unkind to point to the practically stationary condition of Philippine trade (the total imports and exports having, indeed, declined from $62,000,000 in 1902 to $59,000,000 in 1906), or to the unsatisfactory condition of things political

In short, as to the past and present, this book is interesting and valuable. As to the problem of the near future it is almost voiceless.

Three Vagabonds in Friesland with a Yacht and a Camera. By H. F. Tomalin. With photographic pictures by Arthur Marshall. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3 net.

This charming account of a June outing in Northern Holland makes the American reader realize vividly what an advantage the Englishman possesses in his nearness to a foreign land. In less than twenty-four hours he can exchange the streets of London for scenes of enchanting natural beauty, for solitudes whose silence is broken only by the songs of innumerable skylarks, and for water courses where one can sail for miles between banks of golden iris and every conceivable variety of flowering reed and rush. And when he treads the village streets he finds himself among a people fascinatingly picturesque in their homes, their costumes and habits; and nowhere does he see "the rows of dingy cottages, with their atmosphere of dull squalor, which so often disfigure the English [and American] country-side."

The holiday party consisted of "the Architect, the Printer, and the Scribe," and their conveyance was a little Dutch boat by courtesy called a yacht. In this they sailed and punted through the meers and canals, stopping for sight-seeing and photographing at every village. These villages gave a never-ceasing pleasure from their distinctive characteristics—no two being exactly alike—and from their beauty. Of this it is difficult for us to form a true conception, for an Austrian painter confided to our travellers "that he thought Volendam was almost too picturesque. It left nothing to the imagination. . . . An eminent French painter remarked that he saw more pictures there in one day than he could paint in a lifetime." In another village the people seemed to delight in developing the "toy idea to an almost microscopic point. The dog-kennels are miniature replicas of the little houses. The wooden sides are painted to resemble red bricks, and they are complete with green shutters and chimneys." Especially attractive were some of the farmhouses, though the people and their cattle, pigs, and fowl all lived under the same roof. In one the solicitude for the comfort of their animals was carried to such an extent that the little circular windows of the cow-stalls were decorated with "dainty lace curtains!"

Though the "scribe" is careful to assert that the purpose of his book is "to divert rather than to educate," he gives very realistic descriptions of the people and their surroundings, as well as of their industries. Referring to the coöperative system which widely prevails, and to the care of the Government to secure the purity of the butter and cheese, he says: "Toil and economy, cleanliness and State assistance of the right sort, have built up a prosperous and growing trade in this country of marshes, continually menaced by the hungry waters." In this connection it is interesting to note that "their charming girl-Queen seems peculiarly, among rulers, to typify the nation over which she reigns, and the tender sympathy which she extends to her people is given back in the form of a love amounting to adoration."

In the closing chapter some useful information is given for the benefit of those who may feel inclined to take a similar trip, as to the boat, supplies, clothing, and cost. "The total outlay," he reckons, "including the getting there and back, should amount to considerably less than one pound per day for each man." In an appendix the "architect" adds some nature notes, mainly on the birds and flowers of the region, a characterization of the village architecture, and some suggestive "photographic hints for wanderers." Mr. Marshall contributes ninety-nine photographs, not one of which is without interest, and some of which are of remarkable excellence, and a number of sketches of gables, finials, and decorative work. As the reader looks at the map which adorns the cover, and sees how small a part of the country was covered by the trip, the hope upsprings that the three vagabonds will revisit Friesland and give us another entertaining record of their experiences.

In Dwarf Land and Cannibal Country: Travel and Discovery in Central Africa. By Albert B. Lloyd. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3 net.

Mr. Lloyd's book proves, if any proof were needed, the unfailing interest of a story of exploration and adventure. It is written for the most part without literary skill, and in places even crudely; there is considerable repetition, and much space is wasted on matters of trivial interest and on moralization of doubtful profit. Yet the reader who gets beyond the commonplace narrative and reflections of the opening chapters will be likely to continue to the end. For Mr. Lloyd, though by his own avowal he is an amateur at book-making, appears to be a well-seasoned sportsman and a courageous explorer. He has what cleverer writers have often lacked—an extremely interesting story to tell; and when he is under way, he tells it in straightforward and spirited fashion. He does not attempt to make anything like a precise or scientific report of his observations, and anthropologists will not find in his pages

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much that is valuable for their purposes. He says little even of the native legends and beliefs, which commonly make amusing reading. But he describes the country and people entertainingly and at the same time sympathetically. His own adventures, too, and those of his followers, have enough of danger and uncertainty about them to hold the eager attention of the reader. Some of his exploits, such as driving a lion out of the road by "scorching" straight at it down hill on a bicycle and ringing the bell loudly on the way, are sufficiently extraordinary; but they do not exactly justify the familiar charge of "nature-faking."

Although the title of the book refers only to the land of the dwarfs and the cannibals, more than half of the space is taken up with Mr. Lloyd's slow and difficult journey from Zanzibar to Uganda, and with his experiences in Uganda and Toro, where he served successively as a missionary of the Church of England. Much less is said of his strictly religious work than of his general manner of life among the people, with whom he always succeeded in getting into friendly relations; and doubtless the courage, good humor, and love of sport which chiefly appeal to the reader of his narrative helped also to commend his evangel to the natives. Two chapters deal with the Soudanese rebellion of 1897, in which Mr. Lloyd took part both as an interpreter and as an actual combatant. When his health was impaired, partly as a result of these services, he was advised by his physician to take a furlough and return to England; and it was then that he undertook to travel to the west coast, through the Pygmy Forest and the cannibal country of the Congo Free State. He accomplished this journey without military escort or a single European companion, and the chapters which describe it are the most interesting in the book.

Imtheachta Æniasa: The Irish Æneid; the Irish Text, with Translation into English, Introduction, Vocabulary, and Notes. By the Rev. George Calder. Irish Texts Society, Vol. VI. London: Nutt.

The mediæval Irish possessed, in addition to their abundant poems and hero-tales dealing with native tradition, a considerable body of narrative literature of foreign origin. Like the Scandinavians, who also had their native sagas and eddas of great originality and interest, the Irish were affected sooner or later by the dominant literary fashions of Europe; and there exist in the languages of both these outlying peoples translations or redactions representing nearly all the popular cycles of mediæval story. Irish versions of the Trojan legend, following Dictys and Dares; romances of Alexander, Fierabras, Guy of Warwick, and Bevis of Hampton; tales of the Round Table and the Holy Grail; and even the travels of Mandeville and of Marco Polo have all been published in full or in part during recent years; and much more similar material awaits an editor.

The version of the Æneid now made accessible in the latest volume of the Irish Texts Society, really belongs to the same class of productions, though derived from an original unlike any of the foregoing. For the Irish Æneid is not so much a translation of the Latin poem as a retelling of the story in the manner of an Irish *scél*. The substance, as the editor conveniently indicates by marginal references, is in the main identical with Virgil's, making allowance for some rearrangement and a few trifling additions. Many portions of the Latin, especially such as are essential to the action, are rendered with closeness, and Mr. Calder, commenting on the scholarship of the translator, points out a number of Irish parallels to Latin idioms. But fidelity of translation, in any modern sense, either literary or scientific, was far from the Irish writer's purpose, and very much that is most characteristic of Virgil he passes over entirely. Passages dealing with mythology or with Roman history are curtailed or omitted, doubtless because they would have had little interest for the Irish reader. There is no mention of Marcellus and no word of the prophetic counsel of Anchises, "Tu regere imperio pŏpulos, Romane, memento"; and many familiar lines and phrases of description or reflection—"lacrimæ rerum," "suadentque cadentia sidera somnos," "possunt quia posse videntur," "vitaque cum gemitu fugit indignata sub umbras"—have left little or no trace in the Irish text. On the other side, the translator's additions are as characteristic as his omissions. Pallas, the son of Evander, is described as a comely youth with golden hair and clear blue eyes:

> Like the purple foxglove was each of his two cheeks; you would think it was a shower of pearls that had rained into his head; you would think his lips were a loop of coral; as white as the snow of a single night were his neck and the rest of his skin.

Again, when Nisus sees Euryalus fallen dead, we are told:

> There came to him his hero's prowess, his soldier's spirit, his champion's strength, and his warrior's hurling, and he brought a mighty, strongly assaulting tempest on Latinus's host, and hewed a gap of a hundred before him through the host; and he allowed them neither space nor truce, slaying and beheading them heroically, strongly, bravely, and manfully, till he came to Volcens, where he was biding in the middle of the host; and he plunged his sword into his gullet, and it went out through the back of his head, and Volcens fell to the ground lifeless.

This thoroughly unclassical embellishment will be recognized as a common battle "run" by readers of Celtic saga, and the description of Evander will be recalled as having been repeated in almost identical words of scores of youthful beauties, both lads and maidens, in the native stories. And in general, the Latin poem, conceived purely and simply as a story, is translated not only into the language and idiom of the Irish, but into the very frame and formula of its conventional narratives.

In this method of composition, the Irish Æneid resembles most of the other romances of foreign origin of which we have spoken. Many of them are excellent pieces of Irish story-telling; and the Æneid, borrowing, perhaps, some of the richness of its original, ranks among the best. But the literary interest of this whole class of texts is rather historic than intrinsic. They have a second-hand quality, and are seldom as good as the versions in other languages from which they are derived; and the old Irish narrative at its best, which we have no thought of disparaging, is rather to be found in the native sagas, of which it is the original and appropriate expression. The translated texts are chiefly valuable to Celtic scholars and mediævalists, by whom their publication should be heartily welcomed. They add to existing information about the Irish language; they serve to complete our knowledge of the literary and intellectual life of mediæval Ireland; and many of them—though this is hardly true of the Æneid—bear important testimony concerning the growth and relations of the saga cycles to which they belong.

The work of Mr. Calder, the editor of the Æneid, we are pleased to add, is well done. He has taken great care with the printing of his Irish text (a matter of no small difficulty in the case of the much abbreviated Middle Irish manuscripts), and a comparison of several pages with the published facsimile of the Book of Ballymote has revealed very few inaccuracies. Some of these may be really errors of the facsimile. The translation is good, and the notes and glossary contain considerable material of lexicographical value. The introductory remarks on literary relations are the weakest part of Mr. Calder's performance, and betray lack of practice in what is becoming almost a special pursuit, the study of sources. Certainly, no sufficient reason is given for the suggestion that Dante exerted an influence on the Irish author.

Science.

PHOTOGRAPHING THE "CANALS" ON MARS.

IQUIQUE, Chili, July 31.

Many causes conspire to make Mars just now the most popularly interesting of planets. When Schiaparelli, during the opposition of 1877, discovered faint markings which he called *canali*, or channels, general readers promptly translated his designation by the most obvious English word, and "canals" on Mars at once became synonymous with human labor, artificial waterways, and therefore inhabitants. But this ready credence of the marvellous, the hasty leaps at conclusions by the public at large, were not reflected in the astronomical world. Immediate disbelief in his announcement was expressed or at least felt by the majority of professional observers, and an amiable tolerance of his supposedly mistaken enthusiasm was the most of sympathy that he could command. Schiaparelli's maps, however, were made with gradually increasing detail as his eye, by training, detected more. In 1877, 1879, 1881, and 1882 his maps appeared, among later additions being the apparently (astronomically) impossible feature of a duplication in lines, a strange doubling of the straight markings which had already been seen to follow a great circle course—the shortest distance between two planetary points. This almost spoiled what little effect may have been produced by announcement of the single straight lines. Such gemination seemed manifestly absurd. But years went on, and other observers

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at points where the air was especially steady and clear began to suspect markings other than the dark area (Syrtis Major), and the gleaming white polar snow-caps known for over two centuries.

And then Percival Lowell, at his observatory in Arizona, over 7,000 feet in elevation, with a Clark refracting telescope especially constructed for this work, with an object glass having an aperture of twenty-four inches, distinguished farther Martian features in 1894. This line of research he has followed constantly since, with increasing success. Instrumental equipment, favorable atmosphere, remarkable eyesight, and scientific patience have brought great reward; and at each return of Mars to opposition special observation has been conducted. Accumulation of known markings has gone steadily on. During the opposition of the month just past, the planet approached within 38,500,000 miles of the earth. While not the absolute minimum (the nearest possible being 34,500,000), the distance is relatively not so very great by comparison with the 60,000,000 of opposition place at the farther side of Mars's orbit. The Amherst telescope with object-glass of eighteen inches, with which, under Mr. Lowell's auspices, we have been observing Mars for six weeks, brings the planet within practically a distance of 40,000 miles from the earth. In the northern hemisphere Mars has been seen too low on the horizon for the best work. Here in Chili it is high in the heavens, almost at the zenith; while the great, dry pampa with its clear skies has offered an exceptionally steady atmosphere for the study of Martian surfaces. Air tremors are the chief foe to satisfactory astronomical progress. To increase the size and strength of mechanical means of observation, to construct great object-glasses and photographic doublets is well; but they all magnify correspondingly those fluctuations of terrestrial atmosphere which mask and distort and render uncertain the most pregnant celestial landmarks. While positions, distances, motions—in short, the old astronomy—may be pursued with accuracy even from sea-level observatories where thick, cloudy, tremulous air is to be expected, the study of planetary surfaces can proceed satisfactorily only in a serene and steady medium, cloudless so far as possible, and away from artificial disturbances like electric lights, chimneys, and smoke. All conditions for the best results seem to be met at high elevations, particularly in arid regions of least precipitation. These facts led to the choice of the desert of Tarapacá by Prof. David P. Todd as the site for establishing the Lowell expedition station, in South America.

Even more than in ordinary astronomical work, a distinguishing characteristic of the study of Mars visually is the fact that a trained eye can detect a wealth of detail, where one without preparatory experience sees, at first, only a brilliant planetary disk. But even the casual observer, the interested spectator, is able to discover much more at his second, third, or later view than at the beginning. He is likely to exclaim that he sees bright white spots at opposite edges; then he notices a dark area, then streaks; and if his eyes are keen and accurate, he is soon able to make rough drawings of farther markings which become gradually apparent at later views. And without telling him where he should expect certain well-defined lines, it has been interesting to find that the tentative drawings of the intelligent amateur have invariably coincided with the more conspicuous "canals," as repeatedly observed by specialists.

These markings appear most clearly in occasional moments of exceptionally steady air. Even in the pampa, where conditions are peculiarly favorable, such details come, as it were, in flashes. With the eye patiently at the telescope, one is rewarded by frequent intervals of astonishing clarity. Could looking and drawing be accomplished simultaneously, a marvellous network might be delineated. So impressive as to be well-nigh startling in its revelation, was my first view of Mars through our eighteen-inch glass at Alianza. For an instant, not only the well-known features, but lines doubled, as well as single, with the oases at which they meet, appeared as clearly marked as on the most perfect map yet made—instantaneous confirmation of the accumulated knowledge of years. Later, a slight tremulousness of atmosphere blurred somewhat the amazing definiteness of detail, but the steady moments recurred repeatedly. And night after night, on a scale of five, the "seeing" was reported as four and a half; while magnifying powers of six hundred were frequently used—sometimes nearly double that.

But results chiefly photographic and not visual were planned and accomplished by our expedition. The Amherst telescope, built for latitude 42 degrees north, could not, of course, be used at 20 degrees south without important modifications. Planned by Professor Todd, these were executed at the works of Alvan Clark & Sons of Cambridge by Mr. Ilse, our mechanical expert. The polar axis was reversed in direction, as well as in the direction of its motion, or clock-work connection. This accomplished, it was fitted with appliances for photographic, rather than visual, labors, and with especial reference to use on Mars. A planetary camera, built by Gaertner of Chicago, was added, and arranged to amplify the focal image of Mars before impressing it on the sensitive plate. The camera had also especial devices for taking a multitude of images on each plate, usually not less than fifty or sixty. With this equipment, the big telescope was set up and adjusted on the tennis court of the Oficina Alianza, no dome or cover, other than a wrapping of cloth for the more delicate portions, being necessary in this rainless climate. A high wire fence prevented the approach of undue curiosity at close range; but an interested throng of dwellers in the little nitrate village lined the outer boundary for hours at a time, gazing with most amiable sentiments at the mysterious activities within, their wide sombreros, gay ponchos, silver spurs, adding picturesqueness to the scene, set in the midst of the wide, brown pampa, with its rampart of solemn, snow-covered peaks. And here, during night after night of limpid clearness, images of Mars multiplied on the plates, under the deft manipulation of Mr. Slipher, our expert photographer. More than a hundred and fifty plates were covered, making between seven and eight thousand separate images, of varying exposures. By reason of the "flashes" of wondrous steadiness already mentioned, they differ considerably in distinctness, even those of the same negative. But constantly more and more detail was caught.

Actual opposition and the nearest point to the earth did not quite coincide—July 6th and the 13th being the respective dates. For two or three weeks, however, the excellence of view hardly seemed to alter. One complete circumference was photographed, new areas coming into view as the nights and weeks went on. Polar snow caps, of course, appear on all the plates, the south one very large, the north conspicuous as well; the so-called "seas," or more likely areas of desert, threaded by canals and diversified by oases, also show plainly. Photographing the canals is a great satisfaction, considering that Schiaparelli for nine years had them entirely to himself, his drawings being regarded as imaginative productions, his every announcement tacitly derided. In the worst seeing the poorest negatives show both canals and oases. But the crowning achievement of the expedition—result of astronomical and mechanical skill, fine equipment, photographic ability, steady atmosphere, and unremitting effort, in which all members of the expedition and nature itself, must each receive credit—is the appearance on the sensitive plate of several canals manifestly and undeniably *doubled*—a phenomenon visually discovered and announced by the Italian astronomer in 1882, confirmed later by Mr. Lowell and so drawn in his maps of the planet. Most conspicuous of these doubled waterways is Nilo Syrtis, and among others so shown are Nilokeras and Euphrates, and the wide double Gihon. Most difficult of all and the narrowest yet photographed is Thoth—a veritable triumph. Photographic plates, like figures, do not lie—and now for the first time these doubled markings are unmistakably impressed on negatives.

As to an explanation of the canals, though perhaps not so plainly of their doubling the most obvious seems, fortunately, most likely to be upheld by fact. Mars has certain conditions, now well known, not essentially different from those prevailing on the earth. The planet turns upon its axis once in a little over twenty-four hours, making day and night much as with us. The Martian year is nearly twice ours, but with similar seasons; and there is clear evidence of atmosphere, though far thinner than terrestrial air. The conspicuous polar caps, always becoming much smaller with the coming of summer, indicate the presence of snow, and so of some moisture, though as with air, much less than that of our own planet. As the snows melt, a bluish belt borders the retreating whiteness, the canals become visible, then double, and certain other changes take place, which seem to indicate a conserving and distribution of the precious liquid. It is not necessary to infer that the markings seen and photographed are waterways alone. Gigantic indeed must they be, if we could thus detect them, even with the largest telescopes. More likely, it would seem that the bordering vegetation, spreading to a considerable distance and following the coming of water each season,

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should show by its difference in color from the surrounding reddish brown of probable desert—the betraying evidence of the presence of such irrigating channels. Supposition as to causes of doubling may be many. But thus the canals have been seen at intervals for twenty-five years, and thus at last they have been photographed in South America, for the first time.

That Mars is much older, cosmically speaking, than our earth, seems certain, and farther on the way to geologic death. Tracing its story may be a forecast of our own in coming centuries. At all events, the surface of Mars offers a problem in planetary constitution as fascinating as unique. MABEL LOOMIS TODD.

The Chicago University Press will issue this autumn George Ellery Hale's "Study of Stellar Evolution," a popular account of modern methods of astrophysical research.

"The Chemistry of Commerce," by Prof. **Robert Kennedy Duncan, is soon to be issued by Harper & Brothers.**

Professors T. Lyttleton Lyon and E. G. Montgomery of the University of Nebraska publish through Ginn & Co. a little manual, "Examining and Grading Grains," that is worth notice as a pioneer in an important development of agricultural science. Animal breeding has been carried on so long that almost all farmers are, or think themselves, competent judges of good stock. At least they realize the importance of selecting an animal for the particular purpose in mind whether it is a cow for milk, a hen for eggs, or a horse for trotting. But when it comes to grain, where heredity is quite as important a factor, they are likely to plant what they cannot sell or buy the most loudly advertised seed. In the University of Nebraska the students are given score cards on which they are to record their judgment of the number of points a given sample of corn falls below the type in size, shape of kernel, spacing, arrangement, color of cob, etc. They are taught how to distinguish between low proteid and high proteid kernels, and how to detect a strain of "bad blood" in the pedigree of the ear they hold in hand. Wheat, oats, barley, and hay are graded in the same way, and methods for testing the germinating of seeds and their purity are given.

Profs. Hansford MacCurdy and W. E. Castle have summed up their recent researches in experimental zoölogy in a publication of the Carnegie Institution entitled "The Inheritance of Coat-Patterns and Coat-Pigments in Rats and Guinea-Pigs." From a study of over a thousand of the latter animals throughout several generations, it was found that by selection one could increase or decrease the extent of the pigmented areas, but it was not possible to fix this pigmentation in a particular pattern. The areas vary continuously, and out of these variations permanent modifications of the pigmentation were brought about. The question whether selection has permanent effects in evolution is regarded as still open, although the authors are led to think from their own experiments as well as from those of Fritz Müller and DeVries that selection is a most important factor, not only in the isolation of discontinuous variations, but even in their production; and that "it is fallacious to assign all evolutionary progress to one sort of variation or to one sort of inheritance."

Dr. Graham Lusk's "Elements of the Science of Nutrition" (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co.), is quite too special for extended comment in these columns. An abundance of material bearing on the problems of metabolism has been brought together with great care, and the book would be useful on account of its references to the literature if for no other reason. The discussion is usually illuminating, but here and there a more liberal summary or generalization would be most helpful to students, at least to beginners, who need broad statements rather than an enumeration of facts whose bearing they do not easily apprehend. This is especially true of the chapter on the normal diet and that on the theories of metabolism.

Dr. James Carroll, curator of the Army Medical Museum, died in Washington on Monday of an affection of the heart which seized him after experimenting with yellow fever germs in Cuba. He was associated with Major Walter Reed, an army surgeon, in the study of yellow fever bacilli from 1897 to 1902. Dr. Carroll submitted to the bite of an infected mosquito which had previously bitten three persons with well marked cases of yellow fever. Four days after Dr. Carroll was taken ill with a severe attack of that disease. He recovered ultimately, but with impaired health. His case was the first of experimental yellow fever on record, and it demonstrated to the medical world that the yellow fever bacillus was spread by mosquitoes. He was born in England in 1854, and was graduated in medicine from the University of Maryland and the Johns Hopkins Medical School. He had been professor of bacteriology and clinical microscopy at the Army Medical School, professor of bacteriology in the Washington Post-Graduate School, and professor of bacteriology and pathology in the medical department of George Washington University. He was a contributor to medical journals and to the proceedings of various medical societies.

Drama.

Erinnerungen an Henrik Ibsen. Von John Paulsen. Pp. 202. New York: G. E. Stechert & Co..

How persistently Ibsen secluded himself for years from stranger and friend is apparent from the many stories told by the Norwegian dramatist and novelist, John Paulsen, who was with Ibsen several years in South Germany and Italy, and whose neat pocket volume of sketches once contributed to Norwegian journals form a cheerful antidote to the heavier Ibsen literature. While in Bergen and neighboring towns, Ibsen was seldom seen outside of his room or the theatre where he was busy; and when he went to Bavaria and pushed south across the Alps, his shyness seemed intensified. In Munich he never went to the Pinakothek or the Glyptothek, and never visited the theatre, except when his own play was to be produced; he refused all invitations from Paul Heyse and others to parties or quiet evenings in town, and was equally unresponsive in the country to the efforts made by the poet, Voss, to draw him out, keeping to his hotel apartments even when guests such as Ernst Renan were under the same roof. He worked in silence, seldom told his family what he was doing, and was ridiculously fearful lest any one should find out the latest thought in his mind. The result was that, when Frau Ibsen and their son, Sigurd, were travelling with him one summer and, picking up a slip of paper on which Ibsen had written *Der Doktor sagt* (referring to Doctor Stockmann, in "An Enemy of the People"), began to tease him about his next play, Ibsen flew into a terrible rage, and asked if he were surrounded by spies, and if the contents of his desk were really no longer sacred? Even his early application to painting failed to draw him to the exhibition galleries, and of all the celebrities in Munich, he was the least seen in the studios of the struggling Norwegian artists at work there. Acquainted with Goethe and Schiller, Hebbel and Ludwig from his youth, and strongly drawn to Dante, Ibsen nevertheless gave little or no attention to the modern German writers, knew Verga, Edmondo d'Amici, Fogazzaro and other Italians only by name, and was never known, to Paulsen, to have an Italian book or journal in his room. Like Goethe, he cared not a fig for Florence; and spent much of his time in Italy in the capital itself. Yet he was fond of Italian art and essayed to collect old masters, with the result that, without doubt, he was often swindled by the clever makers of old canvases!

Contradictions are inevitable in the character of such men as Ibsen, and notwithstanding his tendency to withdraw from the world, he could be very companionable. He would ask most inquisitively about an evening *Gesellschaft* to which, for no particular reason, perhaps, he had refused to lend his presence—who were there, what the guests had to eat and drink, what "tips" were given, when they left; and in turn he would give out with zest anecdotes, in the telling of which he was a past master. There was the man in Skien, for example, who found pleasure in attending funerals—one or two a day—and who moved to Christiania because everybody lives to a ripe old age in Skien, and in Christiania they "die like flies." Then, too, Ibsen was astonishingly sympathetic in matters affecting the progress of the human race. Never will Paulsen forget a reception at the poet's house in the Campagna, on March 13, 1881, when every one, on his entering, seemed indescribably buoyant; the cause (to Paulsen's regret) was the news of the assassination of Alexander II.

Ibsen maintained his connection with the outer world in three ways: keeping his eyes wide open and avoiding dreaminess while walking; taking up his position regularly in restaurants near the door, and preferably before mirrors, where he could study the passing individuals, who represented to him the nation; and reading the newspapers (advertisements and all) from the top of the first page to the bottom of the last. "Writing poetry is *seeing*," he said to Paulsen in Salzburg twenty-five years

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ago. To what extent, then, was life in such cities as Dresden, Munich, and Rome a gain for Ibsen? He increased his power of concentration, his depth of thinking, his freedom in feeling, and his technical readiness, but he lost in freshness and in faithfulness to local color. He continued to handle Norwegian material, but was far off, for years encompassed by German and Italian life.

Paulsen enjoyed many an inspiring *Gespräch* with Ibsen, and from these fragments we learn not a little about the Norwegian's views of men and things. Of Björnson he said: "He and I are not enemies, as many think; our partisans are at enmity with each other, but not we ourselves." Ibsen did not believe that a man could successfully divide his talent in the writing of both novels and dramas, and pronounced Björnson's "Newly-wedded Couple" a dramatic novel. Paulsen tells how Hans Christian Andersen refused to come down to a notable dinner to which Ibsen was also invited, keeping the company waiting nearly an hour. Ibsen relieved the situation by going up to Andersen's room alone, patting him on the back, and showering him with compliments. "Andersen asked me," said Ibsen, "if I really still appreciated him? It was a delightful dinner; Andersen could be entertaining and amiable as few others." Did Goethe influence Ibsen? As certainly as Shakespeare influenced Goethe. Ibsen spoke of Goethe but seldom, and yet with admiration. He spoke disparagingly of Goethe's management of the theatre at Weimar. He had heard that the old man listened to rehearsals with a conductor's baton, and tried to control them as a musical recitation; and it was evident that Goethe's desire to rule led him to shut out life from the theatre and substitute empty academic rules instead. When Paulsen confessed that he was never reconciled to Goethe for his fawning before Napoleon and his indifference to the fate of his country when it was being oppressed and abused, Ibsen listened with astonishment and replied with a smile: "The chief thing, after all, was that the 'Faust' became written!" As to Heine, Ibsen was surprised that, at twenty-five, Paulsen should not be "through with" him.

As a theatre director, Ibsen, according to the testimony of those associated wirh him, was not strikingly successful. In the beginning he was green, and while later he had a faculty for seeing everything that happened, he offered little or no advice. He was very sensitive and finnicky about little things, and sometimes objected to an actress even because of the size of her hand. Occasionally he insisted doggedly on his choice of a certain person for a part, as when he ordered Frau Wolff, against her tearful and laughing protests, to play the rôle of Sigrid. "God help Sigrid, you, and me!" she cried, "for we are all doing that for which we deserve to be beaten."

Special chapters in Paulsen's book are devoted to "Ibsen und Henrikke Holst" and "Ibsen und Marie Thoresen," giving the reader a pleasant insight into friendships of the dramatist and his relations to those more or less connected with his household. "Ibsen und die Frauenfrage," however, based in part on chats with Frau Collett and in part on Ibsen's works and published speeches, presents nothing new on a subject concerning which it would have been very interesting to hear more from Ibsen himself.

The University of Chicago Press will issue in December "The Tragedies of Seneca," a new translation into English blank verse, with appropriate lyric metre for the choruses, by Frank Justus Miller. Prof. John M. Manly contributes an introduction upon the influence of the tragedies of Seneca upon early English drama.

Gabriele D'Annunzio's pastoral tragedy, "The Daughter of Jorio," has been translated by Charlotte Porter, Pietro Isola, and Alice Henry. It will be issued by Little, Brown & Co. in an illustrated edition with an introduction by Miss Porter.

"Herbert Beerbohm Tree," by Mrs. George Cran (John Lane Co.), is a handy little volume which would have been a good deal more valuable if it had been conceived in a spirit of less indiscriminate eulogy. It gives a full, careful and convenient account of the career of Mr. Tree, with abundant details of his different productions, and is written with a conciseness and a degree of literary skill not often found in such theatrical appreciations. It will greatly please the most fervent admirers of Mr. Tree inasmuch as it credits him with the inspirational genius of which few critics, of recognized capacity, have been able to find any proofs in his acting. Mrs. Cran agrees, apparently, with the rather lonely dictum of Frederic Harrison that Mr. Tree's Hamlet was the finest of the many fine Hamlets that he could remember. In his list he included Charles Kemble, Macready, Irving, Edwin Booth, and Fechter. It is as useless to argue against such an estimate as it is impossible to agree with it. The principal Berlin critics, like their London and New York associates, found Mr. Tree's Shakespearean impersonations clever, ingenious, painstaking, but tricky, shallow, unreal, and unsatisfactory. His Hamlet had no soul, his Falstaff no humor. As a matter of fact Mr. Tree has rarely succeeded in sounding even a semi-tragic note, although perfectly fluent in the expression of melodramatic emotion. It is in romantic melodrama and eccentric comedy that his indisputable and versatile ability as an actor is best displayed. As a producer of stage spectacle he is probably without a rival, as he is at once liberal, tasteful, and imaginative. His artistic sins in sacrificing text to scenery are too notorious to require present enumeration.

The revival of Sheridan Knowles's "Virginius" in the Lyric Theatre on Monday evening afforded one more proof that the popular taste for the old romantic drama has survived the capacity for interpreting it adequately. James O'Neill, who, in his youth, enjoyed the training which is denied to our younger players, acted Virginius with dignity, vigor, sentiment, and passion. His elocution, though occasionally defective in emotional passages, was for the most part, clear, well modulated, and nicely emphasized. But the blank verse presented insuperable stumbling blocks to most of his associates, who spoke their lines in slovenly fashion without the least apparent appreciation of literary or poetic significance. Charles Dalton, a leading man of some local reputation, failed to exhibit any comprehension of the histrionic opportunities in the character of Appius. The Virginia was a simpering self-conscious little creature, the Dentatus a bellowing blatherskite. Most of the personages, indeed, seemed to think that noise was the one available substitute for understanding. The general representation, in a word, was utterly incompetent and unsatisfactory. It is pleasant to know that we still have a few actors, like Mr. O'Neill, Louis James, and Robert Mantell, who are capable of playing famous old parts acceptably, but it is nevertheless a fact that the whole body of poetic drama suffers a certain discredit from such interpretations as the one under consideration.

Madame Nazimova will be seen in Ibsen's "The Master Builder," in the Bijou Theater in this city on September 23. There will be much curiosity to see her in another new character, as the full range of her ability is yet to be determined.

Mrs. Patrick Campbell, it is said, will begin her coming engagement in this city with a presentation of the "Electra" of Euripides. Some notable scenic effects are promised, especially in connection with the appearance of Castor and Pollux and the apparition of the Furies in their pursuit of Orestes.

Music.

The New York Symphony Society, under the directorship of Walter Damrosch, will give twenty Sunday afternoon and eight or nine Saturday evening subscription concerts at Carnegie Hall; a subscription series of four at the Woman's Clubhouse, East Orange, N. J.; four in Montclair, N. J.; five in Brooklyn; four in the Philadelphia Academy of Music, and four in Newark, N. J. It is possible that two more series of three concerts each will be arranged for Plainfield, N. J., and New Rochelle, N. Y. A winter tour of two weeks will begin on the last day of the year; a spring tour of eight weeks will begin the day after Easter. In all, a season of forty weeks has been planned.

The Boston Symphony Orchestra this coming season will give the usual twenty-four public rehearsals and twenty-four concerts in Boston, the usual ten concerts in New York, six in Cambridge, five each in Philadelphia, Brooklyn, Baltimore, and Washington, and three each in Providence and Worcester. Enough single concerts will be given to bring the total well over one hundred. In the last week of January the orchestra, as last year, will go West for six concerts. Buffalo, Detroit, Indianapolis, and Columbus will each have one, and Cincinnati two.

Miss Leah Luboschiz, a Russian violinist, has been engaged by Modest Altschuler for the opening concert of the Russian Symphony Society in Carnegie Hall. She was for two years a pupil of Ysaye.

According to the *Neue Wiener Journal*, Gustav Mahler, who has accepted an engagement for four years as Conried's conductor-in-chief, will pay particular at-

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tention to the operas of Mozart and Wagner (not including "Parsifal," which will remain under the exclusive control of Hertz). Inasmuch as it is the operas of Mozart and Wagner that have been most shabbily treated in recent years, a wholesome reform may be looked forward to.

Art.

The Old Engravers of England in their Relation to Contemporary Life and Art (1540-1800). By Malcolm C. Salaman. Pp. viii., 224; 48 illustrations. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2 net.

The work of the earlier English engravers on metal has not been made the subject of much published criticism until very recently. Early editions of English poets, and newer reprinted books of travel and conquest, are catalogued by booksellers with special attention to the work of English artists in portrait frontispiece or curious engravings of foreign lands and savage customs; but rarely has there appeared any treatise upon the engravers themselves, as filling a place in the history of art. Even the big dictionaries of artists, or of painters and engravers alone, have been rather indifferent to those early Englishmen and those men of the low countries or of northern Germany, who worked in England and pointed the way. It was left for the great "Dictionary of National Biography," under the editorship first of Leslie Stephen and then of Sidney Lee, to do proportionate justice to those engravers. That is one of the merits of this encyclopedic work, the rather un-English way in which the literary man, the artist, or the archæologist has received his share of notice. In 1905 there was published by the British Museum a folio, "Early Engraving and Engravers in England," containing forty full-page reproductions of the exact size of the originals, nearly fifty illustrations of smaller size, and a long and careful essay by Sydney Colvin, keeper of the Department of Prints. That volume includes the name of no artist later than Robert White, who died in 1703; that is, the work is limited to the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

Mr. Salaman's book covering this epoch, as of necessity, comes down a century later. It offers a chronological account of the artists whose work is treated in the great museum publication, two chapters extending to sixty pages; followed by a larger study of the art of mezzotint and the work of mezzotint engravers beginning in 1642 and closing with the eighteenth century. Chapter viii, then, deals with the revival of line engraving in the eighteenth century, and a discussion of such artists as Hogarth, Basire, Strange, and William Blake. The work ends with chapter ix., and the history of stipple engraving in the eighteenth century. The second division is almost twice as long as the early section, and it is also certain to appeal more strongly to the reader and to the modern student of engraving. Mezzotint is so interesting, and the works of the painters —Reynolds, Morland, and Gainsborough— reproduced by the eighteenth century men are so attractive in themselves, that it is no marvel to see the interest excited in our own times by an attempted revival of the art and the renewed study of its methods.

This treatise is the result of a wide sympathy with the art and the artists. There is discrimination, too, and a clear understanding of what is and what is not of notable and permanent value. The author, to be sure, is somewhat inclined to deprecate the taste for mezzotint, and to put down stipple as an inferior art; he cares little for the color printing of the eighteenth century; he is, in fact, a convinced advocate of simple line engraving. This point of view, however, is perfectly comprehensible. Art is many-sided, and there are those in whom the slow, formal, and severe process commands a respect which will never be given to the easier methods of getting gradation, methods which our author frequently calls "scraping." It is regrettable, therefore, that this lover of the burin and of its severe and formal work should have so little to say about its artistic result. No one can tell from the book whether Hogarth is to be taken as an engraver of great technical capacity or not. No one will discover who is, in Mr. Salaman's opinion, a great artist, and who merely a patient and conscientious mechanic.

The book makes interesting reading; and yet there is too much of a certain air of attempted jocosity. It does not seem to be affectation; the author is writing from a very personal standpoint, dealing with the old engravings as with things that he loves, and with their authors as his admired masters. He has studied the social history of the times, and he has many anecdotes to relate. It would require self-control and an overruling good taste, to avoid this fanciful tone. With those who are not offended by this playful way of writing, the familiar character of the descriptions and the criticisms will go far to make the book effective in the way of instruction. It is not evident, however, why anecdotes, some of them scandalous, should be told of public characters represented in portrait engravings, when the stories have nothing to do with the picture in hand, or with the artist who produced it. An earnest reader will ask for a more grave and orderly treatment. Indeed, the owner of this book and would-be student of its subject, having the historical sequence furnished to him by means of its pages, would do well to turn for facts and dates, and for the essential criticism of the artists treated, to the pages of the "National Dictionary" already mentioned.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. announce for publication this autumn "Augustus St. Gaudens: A Memorial," by Royal Cortissoz. This volume will contain a memoir of the sculptor and a study of his work. It will be illustrated with photogravure pictures of St. Gaudens's work.

L. C. Page & Co. announce the publication of a new volume in their Art Galleries Series entitled, "The Art of the Prado," by C. S. Ricketts.

In J. W. Mackail's lecture on William Morris and his circle (Henry Frowde), delivered at Oxford last month to the University Extension students, the speaker summed up with lucidity and an insight born of special knowledge the main stages in the artist's development and the purpose running through his work. As a boy Morris was deeply affected by the Anglo-Catholic movement, and when he came to Oxford in 1853 it was with the intention of taking orders. This resolve did not last long. Under the influence of the Brotherhood, the group of men who clustered round him and his friend, Edward Burne Jones, the monastic ideal faded away in the light of the outer world; instead of Christian antiquities and theology, there was revealed to him the whole field of history and literature, with the golden thread of art running through all. But if the development of art in all its branches became henceforth the object of his life, art as he understood it was not, said Mr. Mackail, "an abstract and lonely thing, but the joint energy and common sympathy of many minds": for him the secret of the outer world was "fraternity." Working at first with a few friends, then with a larger association of artists and craftsmen, his ideal presented itself to him in late life as a fully "socialized" commonwealth, where, to quote the famous phrase of his mature years, art should be "by the people, for the people, a joy to the maker and the user."

The Boston Museum of Fine Arts has issued a new Handbook, designed to meet the needs of persons who desire to see the objects of greatest beauty and rarity. For those who wish only to look at special collections, separate sections of the Handbook are on sale: Egyptian Art; Classical Art; Western Art: Pictures and Prints; Western Art: Various Collections and Textiles; and Chinese and Japanese Art. Each of the sections is prefaced by a map showing the location of objects described. The introductions to the different sections are followed by lists of books recommended for reading and occasional books are suggested throughout the text. Among special features of the Handbook may be mentioned the introduction to the Greek vases, which, together with the illustrations, tells as much of vases as the average visitor cares to know; the introduction to Greek coins, in the nature of an interpretation; the general introduction to Western Art (supplemented by special introductions such as those to Dutch Painting, French and American Painting). For the first time a section of prints is included. A description of the Museum's collection is followed by reproductions of etchings, engravings, chiaroscuro, mezzotint, etc. Emphasis is laid on the study of prints as an adjunct to the study of the history of painting. The section on Textiles has been enlarged and introductions to Weavings and Lace inserted. In the part devoted to Chinese and Japanese Art an attempt has been made to give a historical summary and to establish a definite chronology. The final section is devoted to a description of the New Museum.

Finance.

THE NEW YORK CITY BOND SALE.

There are no doubt two distinct and opposite points of view from which the results of last week's sale of $40,000,000 in New York city bonds may be regarded. That a 4½ per cent. bond should bring on the average a price not higher than 102, when 4 per

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cent. loans were floated at 101⅝ less than a year ago, and when 104½ was paid for a 3½ per cent. issue as recently as 1903, would not ordinarily be described as gratifying. But this is hardly the proper aspect from which to consider the matter. It had become evident, three months or more ago, that investors would not pay par for a 4 per cent. loan, even when issued by a municipality with such unquestioned credit as this city can boast. That the situation thus presented was not peculiar to New York, all well-informed people are aware. Other cities in the United States—Boston, for instance—have passed through an exactly similar experience. European governments and municipalities have equally been compelled to increase the rate of interest paid on their loans, or where they have not done so, they have had to content themselves with a much lower price than was received on previous offers of the same securities.

In the rise of the interest rate New York has been confronted with a phenomenon familiar to all the markets of the year. What made the case of this city somewhat peculiar, and drew special attention to last week's offer, was the fact that New York had insisted so long on restricting its offers to 4 per cent. bonds with a minimum price of par, that it allowed two successive tenders of its bonds to be rejected by the market. Of its $29,000,000 public offer of June 28, only $2,121,000 were taken; for the $15,000,000 put on public sale on August 12, only bids for $2,713,000 were received. This, it is needless to say, was a serious blow to the prestige of the city. Such a result all great borrowers avoid with the utmost solicitude, and the city's finance department cannot be held blameless. Comptroller Metz, of course, was governed by the creditable wish to protect so far as possible, from undue depreciation in the market price of their holdings, investors who subscribed to the city's previous issues at the prices of 1906 or earlier. This was a valid reason for moving cautiously, and it may have warranted the holding to a 4 per cent. rate last June, even though the Legislature had already conferred on the city's finance commissioners authority to fix a higher rate. But the June experiment was conclusive; it proved that a 4 per cent. loan could not be sold with the charter restriction to par as a minimum price. Therefore, repeating an offer at those terms in August was a serious blunder.

It might have caused what the city had most reason, for its own sake and for the sake of its bondholders, to avoid—namely, the vague impression that somehow New York city's credit had collapsed. If such an injurious notion had actually spread, nothing could possibly have done more towards encouraging it than the next step—actually urging contractors with matured and unpaid claims to accept new 4 per cent. bonds at par in payment; this at the moment when those very bonds were selling around 95 in Wall Street. Mr. Metz, in short, fell into exactly the blunder of Secretary Carlisle's operations in the Federal Government finance of 1894, refusing to recognize the plain condition of the markets until his hesitation had brought to a dangerous crisis the very evils which he was seeking to avoid.

Happily, the liberal over-subscription last week of the $40,000,000 loan, at the higher price, has dispelled the unreasonable fears which the midsummer episode had created. The investing public now has unmistakable assurance on two important points—first, that New York city's credit is as sound as ever; and second, that at the market price, abundant stores of capital are yet to be had by borrowers.

The two considerations which remain concern the city's fiscal methods and the probable outcome of the existing situation in the market. Unimpeachable as the credit of New York city still remains, this year's occurrences should serve as a serious warning against the haphazard extravagance of our municipal bureaus and the antiquated bookkeeping system which keeps the general public, and possibly the city's own officers, completely in the dark as to the exact facts regarding income and expenditure, surplus or deficit, and debt or redemption of debt. The city's present system of accounts is an absurdity which would discredit a frontier village. When the British Exchequer is able every week to issue a short, complete, and illuminating statement of the Government's fiscal position, and when the United States Treasury publishes every day a statement which enables the ordinary reader to see exactly where it stands, and how its status has changed since the opening of the month or year, the jumble of intricate figures issued to the public once annually by New York city is inexcusable. That difficulties exist, when taxes are collected at widely separated dates and are anticipated by temporary loans, no one denies; but this is far from a proper apology for the existing lack of system.

The question, when the high price of capital—which affects the borrowing railway, manufactory, or real estate owner, as it does the borrowing State—is likely to return to the former level, is bound up in the formidable problem of the general strain on capital and rise in prices. This is too broad a question to take up at the present moment.

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